ISSN 0753-4973

ALYTES

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF BATRACHOLOGY



L 9 JAN. 2007

December 2006

Volume 24, N° 1-4

Source : MNI-IN Paris



International Society for the Study and Conservation of Amphibians

(International Society of Batrachology)

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INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF BATRACHOLOGY

December 2006

Volume 24, No 1-4

Alytes, 2006, 24 (1-4): 1-5.

Editorial

Alvtes as a forum



Alain Dubois

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La culture ce n'est pas avoir le cerveau farci de dates, de noms ou de chiffres, c'est la qualité du jugement, l'exigence logique, l'appétit de la preuve, la notion de la complexité des choese et de l'arduité des problèmes. C'est l'habitude du doute, le discernement dans la méfance, la modestie d'opinion, la patience d'ignorer, la certitude qu'on n'a jamais tout e vrai en partage, c'est avoir l'esprit ferme sans l'avoir rigide, c'est étre armé contre le flout est usois contre la fausse précision, e'est refuser tous les famitients et jusqu'à ceux qui s'autorisent de la raison, profit pour les charaltans, c'est vévier le gianie mais sans en faire une idole, c'est toujours préfèrer ce qui est à ce qu'on préférerait qui fles

Jean ROSTAND, 1963: 47

Scientific publications have gone through a major revolution in the last decades. This revolution consists in a double, contradictory movement: on one side much more freedom for the expression of different ideas, opinions, theories and hypotheses; on the other much less freedom, and the progressive imposition on scientists of a "consensual", "majority", "official" or even "complisory" discourse.

The first side comes from the development of easy, cheng, accessible to all, international means of communication and "publication" by electronic means, though "sites" on the world wide web. Virtually anybody, in any place of the planet, can create his/her own website, and "publish" his/her own writings, ideas, proposals and projects, so obtat this system may appear very "democratic" and fair. "Publishing" (i.e., "making public") on the web avoids to have to go through a process of review by referees, and facing the genuine problems associated with this practice (which include consortisple of opinions adverse to those of the reviewers, as well as princy of results and ideas'). However, only a few websites (those that appear on too of the netwees lists provided by most search entinesies realth where a wide distribution and are largely

^{1.} Contrary to what some seem to believe, this is not an exceptional fact. For example, the next issue of Afrew will contain a paper which, submitted elsewhere, had been refused, but was used by a referee to modify (on proofs) a paper that was in press. Hundreds of similar examples could be mentioned, but one of the untold (and rarely transsersed) rules of the current system is to remain siltent on such facts.

consulted. Furthermore, most of the websites or pages have only a short life, and are not stored for permanent conservation, so that considering and quoting them as scientific publications is highly questionable, as a reference must be liable to be found and consulted even after decades (Dunos, 2003). Despite projects for a long-term conservation of the contents of web pages as they were at a given date and under a given address (DPLAVILE et al., 2003), this is still far from being a common practice, and, for the purpose of scientific knowledge, information and references, most web pages must indeed be considered as "unsublished".

Beside this (apparent) freedom of "publication" of scientific results, theories and hypotheses on the web, a very different situation exists in the world of scientific journals. A distinction has always existed between "major" and "well-known" journals, and "local" or "secondary" ones. But the importance of this distinction has become much stronger in the last decade, especially in Europe, because of the growing weight of so-called "impact factors" (IF) for the "evaluation" of the "quality" of the research produced by individual scientists and research teams. The time is far when the quality of a scientific paper was appreciated by the peers on the basis of its contents, irrespective of the journal where it was published. Nowadays, when you meet colleagues and ask them about their recent scientific publications, a growing proportion of them will mention the titles of the journals where they were published and sometimes their IF, i.e., their "notes" in the "hierarchy" of journals, but not necessarily what they deal with. This system of "notes" may have been influenced by the ideologies of sports and "show business" (with competition. ranking, prices, awards, records, champions, etc), which have had a growing (and highly questionable) impact on the whole of our societies in the recent decades. To have a "visibility" in the international community, as well as for the carriers of professional scientists, the funding of research teams, and ultimately the mere possibility to carry out any given research project, publication in these "highly-ranked" journals has become almost compulsory.

However, publication in such journals requires following very precise (although untold) rules, e.g., defauling with some topics only, following certain ideas currently considered "dischionable" or simply dealing with some topics only, following certain ideas currently considered "substinable" or simply "acceptable", using a special vocabulary and a certain style, especially writing in a short and very condensed way for the expense of quality and precision of ideas, e.g., hanning any expression of doubt, and writing only peremptory statements. Some authors, especially from some countries, considered prominent specialists, "in their field, or supported by a lobby, have no difficulty in publishing in these journals, including "worthless or even simply stupid papers" (HOLYSSX, 2003), whereas others, especially when they happen not to agree with the former ones on some of the "consensual" ideas of the time, are systematically "silenced" in such journals, mostly because their papers are generally submitted to review by members of the first category. Hotty VSSX (2003) provided interestine comments on this question:

"Usual (or at least very frequent) [is the] tendency of editors to automatically assume that in case of disagreement between the author and referee it is always the latter who is right and the former must exactly follow the (...) 'mandatory recommendations'. It is difficult to find out what such assumption could be based on. For many years I (for instance), according to my personal (arguably not identical to those of anybody else - including the reviewer) interests and abilities, do the research on particular type of problems: make thousands of observations, read hundreds of papers, think over innumerable theoretical or methodological questions, discuss doubtful points with colleagues; as some more narrowly delimited topic emerges from the background of so gathered general experience. I spend further months or years on its elaboration, and then at least weeks on formulation of text, ensuring its factual, interpretational and formal accuracy, implementing and cross-checking innumerable corrections. 'polishing' the style, etc., until it precisely reflects my interpretation of the results. Then my paper is sent to somebody who - having in most cases faced the subject for the first time in his/her life - will read the manuscript through on a bus, give the matter his/her careful consideration standing under the shower next morning, and... I receive the review from the editor together with the kind information that 'unfortunately the paper has been rejected because of negative opinion of the reviewer' or (in the 'better' case) 'please correct the paper according to the reviewer's suggestions and send it back within two weeks' - the question of whether I agree with the 'suggestions' or not is apparently not interesting to anybody... Somewhat later I am asked to review someone's - perhaps just my earlier referee's - paper and now... niv opinions are decisive! I do not believe this system to make very much sense! (...) even the most honest and careful referee is not likely to be more conversant with the particular problems than the author of the reviewed paper, so there is no reason to assume a priori that his/her critical remarks are valid. And indeed, Dubois 3

innumerable examples provided by the history of science show, how frequently even the most respectable authorities are wrong as 'referees', and how destructive can such unjust opinion be (...)".

From a simple scientific point of view, the function of having manuscripts refereed before publication may be very useful to limit fuctual mistakes in some papers; wrong calculations, objective methodological mistakes, unwarranted conclusions drawn from the data presented, etc. Such objective criticisms by referees, as defined by BOUR & DUBOIS (1994), can avoid many problems, and even subjective criticisms often allow to improve papers: but the difference between both kinds of comments is that the latter should only be considered suggestions, not requirements that the author is obliged to follow for acceptance of the paper. Let us come back to Holyński's (2003) words: "I have no objection against indeed, I like very much - discussions on 'my' topics (...) with anybody interested, but only on the condition that: (1) the last ward is mine (I will sign the paper with my name, so it must reflect my views); (2) the discussion-partner does not feel offended if I do not agree with - and consequently do not accent his/her views; and (3) the exchange of opinions does not significantly delay the publication: these points are, in my opinion, much more important than possible discovery by the reviewer of some minor mistakes or inaccuracies". Although peer-review is often presented as essential to assure high standard of publications, it is in fact in this rôle only partially efficient, being also powerful as suppressor of valuable but unorthodox and/or "unfashionable" works. Its major function seems to be to eliminate many manuscripts submitted to some journals which, being considered more important than others because of the IF dictatorship, are much more solicited and cannot publish a large proportion of the papers they receive. Another function is clearly to avoid dissident opinions from those of the "leading specialists" in a scientific field.

Recently, in a poorly refereed paper (as it contains several gross factual mistakes); HILLIS (2006) made a plea for "Google taxonomy": he suggested that taxonomiss' should keep their classifications and nomenclatures unchanged in order to follow the "taxonomiss" information provided in major sites on the web; if such a suggestion was to be followed in all domains of science, then we should better stop all scientific research worldwide, as science always produces new results which challenge the ideas of the past. Google and other similar sites should be at the service of customers to find information, including information on the progress of science and changes in the ideas of the past. Otherwise, they will act as a brake against estimite progress.

At every epoch, "leading specialists" have had very strong opinions and they have been angry at those who did not share them. Fortunately, they did not always succeed in "silencing" them. The literature on the systematics and evolution of amphibians is rich in examples of such situations. Let us reconsider a few of them. The North American leopard frogs were long referred to a single species, Rame pipieus, which was considered to be very variable according to the regions. This variation was seen as entirely adaptive to climatic conditions, and this example was long given as a good empirical support for the prevalence of gradualistic evolution in zoology. This "model of Moore" was challenged by the discovery that different call types corresponded to different morphotypes, then later to different protein electromorphs, and finally to different species, but it took some time to publish these findings, as they were against the "dogma" that could be found in any textbook on evolution (Dutons, 1977). Similarly, all European green frogs were long considered to belong in a single species, Rame excellenta, or two species, adding Rame ridthmada, but other phenotypes (including that now known as Ram lessonney were considered to be mere variations, or at best subspecies, of the former. When Leszk Berger obtained very strange results in some crosses involving these frogs, he could not explain them but he wanted at less to

^{2.} As this paper was a reply to a paper of mine (Dusons, 2006) but contained many confusions and misleading statements. I immediately submitted a rebutal to the journal, where it is asser rejected, not because it contained factual mistakes, but for the following reason: "The manuscript is mostly about nomenclature, and as such I feel it is not entirely appropriate for the journal Molecular Phylogenetics. Exhibition. (...) While I agree that differences and misunderstandings surrounding "The Code" and Phylogenetics can cause confusion and taxonomy, I also feel that debates regarding these differences are better suited to nomenclature journals." (It September 2006). Nobody knows what are these so-called "nomenclature journals," but anyway my reply had to be resubmitted elsewhere (Dusons submitted), and readers of MPE will continue to have misleading information about some basis (Rules and concepts) of coolegical nomenclature.

publish his careful observations. He had to wait for several years to publish them, because all editors, professors and specialists would tell him: your results cannot be right, just look at any textbook of genetics. It later turned out that Leszek's observations were correct and the textbooks wrong, because at that time no one knew hybridogenesis and kleptons (DUDGS, 1977). Dunos & GONTHER, 1982; GEAR & POLLS PLAZ, 1989). At the times of these two stories, the system of referees was not prevalent, and most of the decisions regarding acceptance or refusal of papers were in the hands of the chief editors of the journals, but it is likely that the referee system would have produced similar results: except in some notworthy cases, the referees express the "consensual opinion" of the scientific community in which they work, and they are shocked or afraid by papers that do not follow the general trend. This is the very essence of the system, and it is uncertain whether the works of Gallielus. Wegener or Hennig would have been published if they had been submitted to "peer-review", especially by "prominent specialists" of their disciplines.

A scientist may be very good, careful, brilliant, he may be right in many cases, but he may also happen to be wrong as no one is infallible; this is why the "argument of authority" ("it must be so. because the great specialist Mr So-and-So thought it is so") is not a scientific argument (just like the "proof by Google"). Let us consider just George Albert Boulenger, certainly one of the best amphibian taxonomists ever (considering the concepts and techniques available at his time). A large majority of the species and other taxa he described as new are still considered valid today, and many of his opinions in controversial cases were later supported. Many, but not all. He thus debated with Nelson Annandale (Annandale, 1917; Boulenger & Annandale, 1918; Boulenger, 1920) on the status of the Indian frog then known as Rang crassa (now Hoplobatrachus crassus), which Boulenger considered a "variety" of Rang tigring (now Honlohotrachus tigerinus) whereas Annandale who had observed both forms in life considered them as distinct species. The debate between the two men ended with a peremptory statement of Boulenger that he was certainly right, as this case was similar to that of Rana esculenta and Rana lessonae, which he regarded as mere "varieties" of a single species; it turned out that in both cases Boulenger was wrong, and that Annandale's opinion on the specific status of the two Indian forms was COTTECT (DUBOIS, 1974; KOSUCH et al., 2001; GROSJEAN et al., 2004). Another case where Boulenger turned out to be wrong, also in this case because he was above all a laboratory man, is his refusal to recognize the tree-frog of southern France as a distinct species from that of northern Europe, although Louis-Francois Héron-Royer, an excellent field batrachologist, had described it as Hyla barytonus, using for the first time the criterion of male calls to distinguish two morphologically very similar frog species (HÉRON-ROYER, 1884; Boulenger, 1898); today, since the work of PAILLETTE (1967) on mating calls, the species status of the southern form (now known as Hyla meridionalis) is accepted by all.

Innumerable examples of this kind could be given, coming from all branches of science. In many cases, after some time, mistakes have been corrected, and which was once a minority opinion is now firmly established. In some cases, because some voices were silenced, some results ignored or censored, this "mormal process" of correction of mistakes has not yet occurred — perhaps it will hever occur. The consequences are not always dramatic for science and for mankind, of course. Cases like the Lysenko-Micharin years under Stalin, or so-called scientific support from some biologists for the racist nazi theories, are fortunately rare in history. But they may always come back. At any rate, science has never anything to gain to censorship, to silencing the opinions of those who do not think like the majority, or more exactly like those who control the sources of power in the scientific community (who are not always the majority). The arrogant attitude of some referees and editors of scientific journals prowdays is not acceptable, and should not be accepted by the scientific community. We do not need ayatollahs who "possess the truth" in science, they are numerous enough in the rest of our society.

The repeated efforts of the journal Africs to be indexed in the Current Contents and the ISI database (which provides the impact factors) having failed until now, and the journal having no sponsor or institutional support of any kind, its long-term survival is highly uncertain. The journal is published by a non-profit society, and it lives only on the support of its subscribers, readers and authors, including through page charges and occasional gifts (which are always selcome). Anyway, as long as the journal will exist, the hope of its founder is that it will remain, as it has been from the start, open to different opinions, different approaches, different kinds of works and ideas. To make this even clearer, in this since we start a new section of the journal, entitled Forum. All interested colleagues are welcome to send us papers raising unusual questions, proposing unorthodox approaches or opinions, or presenting strange, uncer-

DUBOIS 5

plained findings or results dealing with amphibians, amphibian biology or more general questions if these apply to amphibians (as is the case in this issue). Readers are welcome to reply, as long as they remain within the limits of an intellectually honest debate among colleagues, with mutual respect between contradictors. No censorship will be exerted on papers submitted to this section of the journal, although factual mistakes or clear methodological flaws; if detected, will of course not be published.

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Une nouvelle ergotaxinomie des Megophryidae (Amphibia, Anura)

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Based on recent morphological and molecular cladistic hypotheses, a new ergotaxonomy (provisional classification) of the family Megophryidae is presented, including three subfamilies, four tribes, ten genera and six subgenera.

Au sein de l'ordre des Amphibiens Anoures, un ensemble de genres à distribution orientale, eurasiatique et nord-américaine est souvent désigné comme "superfamille des PELOBATOIDEA" (DUBOIS, 1984, 2005; DUELLMAN & TRUEB, 1985; FROST et al., 2006). Cet ensemble comporte quatre unités, dont les relations phylogénétiques ont fait l'obiet de plusieurs études récentes (Sanchiz, 1998; García-Paris et al., 2003; Haas, 2003; Canna-TELLA & HILLIS, 2004; HOEGG et al., 2004; ROELANTS & BOSSUYT, 2005; SAN MAURO et al., 2005: Frost et al., 2006). Malgré ces travaux, il n'existe pas encore d'hypothèse vraiment robuste concernant les relations cladistiques entre ces groupes, incluant notamment une résolution de la position des genres fossiles, mais la validité des quatre groupes eux-mêmes fait actuellement l'obiet d'un consensus. Etant donné que les rangs nomenclaturaux comme famille, sous-famille ou genre ne font pas l'obiet de définition, biologique ou autre (DUBOIS, 2006a-b), le rang attribué à un taxon supraspécifique dans toute taxinomie est largement arbitraire, et résulte souvent d'un consensus entre spécialistes. Les quatre groupes évoqués ici peuvent être pour l'instant traités, soit comme quatre sous-familles d'une unique famille des PELOBATIDAE (DUBOIS, 2005), soit comme quatre familles distinctes (Frost et al., 2006), Par souci de nous conformer à la tendance majoritaire parmi les spécialistes ces dernières années. nous attribuons ici le rang de famille à ces quatre taxons, soit: les MEGOPHRYIDAE Bonaparte, 1850 (1931): les PELOBATIDAE Bonaparte, 1850; les PELOBYTIDAE Bonaparte, 1850; et les SCAPHIOPODIDAE Cope, 1865. La présente note concerne la première de ces familles, à distribution est-asiatique et orientale.

Plusieurs études récentes ont été consacrées à l'analyse des relations phylogénétiques au sein de ce groupe, en s'appuyant, pour l'une sur la caryologie (RAO & YANG, 1997), pour une autre sur la morphologie externe el l'anatomie bucco-pharyngée des tétards (GROSHEAN, sous presse), pour deux autres sur le séquencase de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et l'appur deux autres sur le séquencase de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et l'appur deux autres sur le séquencase de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et appur deux autres sur le séquencase de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et autres de l'appur deux autres sur le séquencase de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et autres de l'appur deux autres sur le séquence de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et autres de l'appur deux autres sur le séquence de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et autres de l'appur deux autres sur le séquence de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et autres de l'appur deux autres sur le séquence de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et autres de l'appur deux autres sur le séquence de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et autres de l'appur deux autres sur le séquence de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et autres de l'appur deux autres sur le séquence de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et autres de l'appur deux autres sur le séquence de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et autres de l'appur deux autres sur le séquence de deux génes mitochondriaux (ARN; 16S et autres de l'appur de l

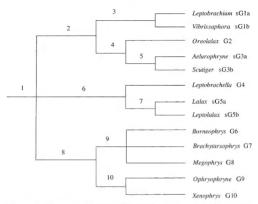


Fig. L. - Récapitulatif sur les relations phylogénétiques au soin des Micconstruct inférées des données morphologiques et moléculiers de IJI Ros de Yanco (1997), [2] Zeuses et al. (2004b), [3] ZEUSE et al. (2004b), [3] ZEUSE et al. (2004b), [4] GROSEAN (SOUS press) et [5] DELORME et al. (soumis). Les numéros à droite précédés de lettres désignent les generes (G) et les sous-gerres (GO) et se que numérois dans le texte. Les numéros portés sur les branches correspondent aux taxons suivants (les chiffres entre crochets ci-après revoient aux, 5 références ci-dessus sont fournisse is informations étament les "chaés"; (1) famille Micconstruce Bonaparie, 1850 (1931) [1-5]; (2) sous-famille Letromaccum-au Dubois, 1983 [2, 5]; (3) tribu Letromaccum-au Dubois, 1983 [2, 5]; (4) tribu Desonatassen Dubois, 1983 [3, 5]; (6) sous-famille Letromaccum-au Dubois, 1983 [3, 5]; (6) sous-famille Letromaccum-au Dubois, 1983 [3, 5]; (6) sous-famille Letromaccum-au Dubois, 1980 [3, 5]; (6) sous-famille Letromaccum-au Dubois, 1980 [3, 5]; (6) sous-famille Micconstruct Bonaparie, 1850 (1931) [1-5]; (9) tribu Xenomacum Bonaparie, 1850 (1931) [1-5]; (9) tribu Xenomacum Bonaparie, 1850 (1931) [1-5]; (9) tribu Xenomacum Bonaparie, 1850 (1931) [1, 5]; (9) tribu Xenomacum Bonaparie, 1850

cytochrome b) (ZHENG et al., 2004a-b), et enfin pour une autre à la fois sur la morphologie externe des adultes et têtards et sur le séquençage de deux gènes (ARNr mitochondrial 12S et 16SI (DELORME et al., soumis). Ces travaux confirment le monophylétisme du groupe, mais sont en conflit concernant l'agencement des genres à l'intérieur de celui-ci, en particulier quant à la place du "clade" Leptobrachella-Leptoblatx. Nous avons donc choisi de présenter ici un consensus provisoire des diverses hypothèses proposées par ces auteurs, en considérant cette dernière question comme irrésolue (fig. 1). Nous subdivisons ci-dessous cette famille en trois sous-familles, quatre tribus div series et six sous-enres. Cette exposizioniem (classification) de l'assification de

cation provisoire) devra être modifiée en ce qui concerne les relations hiérarchiques entre les taxons lorsque leurs relations phylogénétiques seront mieux comprises, mais nous pensous que les groupes eux-mêmes, tels que définis ci-dessous, resteront pour la plupart inchangés.

Nous donnons ci-dessous pour chaque taxon: (1) dans le texte, une apognose (DUBOIS, 1997), c'est-d'ieru une liste d'états de caractéres considérés apmortphiques pour le taxon, comme résultat des analyses cladistiques de Grossean (sous presse) et DELORME (soumis); pour quelques rares taxons nous ne donnons pas d'apognose, car il s'agit de taxons pour lesquels nous ne connaissons pas d'apomorphies morphologiques, mais dans de tels cas les taxons-frères sont toujours caractéries par des apognoses qui s'appliquent à tous leurs membres examinés, sans exception; (2) dans un tableau, une diagnose, c'est-à-dire une liste d'états de caractères considérés discriminants par rapport aux taxons frères; (3) dans le texte, la liste des taxons inclus; (4) dans le texte, la distribution du taxon, en ne prenant en compte que les pays et, pour la Chine et l'Inde, les provinces. On trouvera en appendice I la liste de tous les spécimens examinés pour les travaux de GROSSEAN (sous presse) et de DELORME (soumis). Tous les états de caractères que nous considérons comme apognostiques ou dia-gnostiques pour un taxon ont été observés chez tous les spécimens rapportés à ce taxon dans l'appendiec I.

Super-famille PELOBATOIDEA Bonaparte, 1850.

Famille ΜΕσΟΡΗΚΥΙΔΙΕ Βοπαραττε, 1850 (1931). – Αροφποςε: Crêtes vomériennes, si présentes, en forme de gouttes et s'orientant vers l'arrière de la bouche; ouvertures des sacs vocaux, si présentes, moyennes ou petites; glande fémorale individualisée; muscle caudal du têtard plus haut que les nageoires dorsale et ventrale de la queue; spiraculum du tétard avec l'extrémité libre; absence de papilles linguales chez le têtard; une chambre branchiale unique de chaque côté chez le tétard. – Répartition: Bhoutan, Birmanie, Brunei, Chine (Fujian, Gansu, Guangdong, Guangxi, Guizhou, Hainan, Hong Kong, Hubei, Hunan, Jiangxi, Qinghai, Shaanxi, Sichuan, Xizang, Yunnan et Zhejiang), Inde (Assam, Jammu & Kashmir, Meghalaya et Sikkim), Indonésie, Laos, Malaise, Philippines, Thaïlande et Vietnam – Contenu: Trois sous-familles, dont le tableau 1 donne les principaux caractères diagnostiques différentiels.

- (1) Sous-famille LeptobaccHINSAE Dubois, 1983. Apognose: Pas d'apomorphie morpholo-gique connue, taxon défini seulement par des états de caractères plésiomorphes. Répartition: Bhoutan, Birmanie, Brunei, Chine (Fujian, Gansu, Guangdong, Guangsi, Guizhou, Hainan, Hong Kong, Hubei, Hunan, Jiangxi, Qinghai, Shaanxi, Sichuan, Xizang, Yunnan et Zhejiang), Inde (Assam, Jammu & Rashmir, Mephalaya et Sikinim), Indonésie, Laos, Malaisie, Philippines, Thailande et Vietnam. Contenu. Deux tribus, dont le tableau 2 donne les principaux caractères diagnostiques differentiels.
- (a) Tribu LEFTOBRACHINI Dubois, 1983. Genre-type: Leptobrachium Tschudi, 1838. Apognose: Présence d'un réseau sur la peau du corps; présence de nombreuses petites glandes sur le flanc. – Répartition: Birmanie, Brunei, Chine (Fujian, Guangdong, Guangxi, Guizhou, Hainan, Hunan, Jiangxi, Sichuan, Yunnan et Zhejiang), Inde (Assam et Meghalaya), Indonésic, Laos, Malaise, Philippines, Thailande et Vietnam. — Contenu: Un gent

Tableau 1 Principaux caractères différentiels entre les trois sous-familles de la famille des Megophianidae Bonaparte, 1850 (1931). TC: type de caractère: A. concernant les adultes; O. concernant les œufs; T. concernant les télards.

| ΤÇ | Caractere | LEPTOBRACHINAL Dubois 1983 | [kP7():4/ 46/ \4/ nov | Mesopulicas de Bonaparte, 1850 (1931) |
|----|---|---|---|--|
| A | Project ons painebrales | Absentes | Absentes | Presentes ou absentes |
| A | Difference de couleur entre les parties supérieure et inférieure de l'iris | Presente ou absente | Présenté ou absente | Absente |
| A | Dents vomériennes | Absentes | Absentes | Présentes ou absentes |
| A | Ligne de coloration plus claire reliant la machoire infer cure et les bras | Absente | Absente | Présente ou absente |
| ۸ | Forme et position du tubercale palmaire interne | Arrondi, no s etendant pas sur æ I** métacarpies | Arrondi ne s'etendant pas sur le 1° metacarpien | Ovale is elendant surite l'a metacurpien |
| A | Taille du tubercule palmaire interne | Moyenne | Grande | Moyenne |
| A | Lignes glandulaires transversales sur les eursses | Absentes | Absentes | Présentes ou absentes |
| A | Forme des g andes axil aires | Large et aplatie | Large et ap atre, ou en peuts mamelons coniques | Petits mamelons coniques |
| A | Poytion desig andes ax faires | Sur les flancs à l'arrière de l'insert on des bras ou sur les cotés de la postrine | Sur les cotes de la postone | Sur les côtes de la postrine |
| A | Glandes femorales | Présentes ou absentes | Présentes | Présentes |
| A | Forme de la tête | Large | Etroite | Large ou étroite |
| A | Relation entre es talons lorsque es menibres posterieurs sont mis à angle droit avec le corps | E oignes ou juste en contact | Se crossant largement | Elo-gnes, se touchant ou se ero sant |
| A | Epines nuptiales sur les doigts des mâles reproducteurs | Absentes ou présentes | Absentes | Présentes |
| 0 | Pigmentation | Pigmentés ou non | Non pigmentés | Non pigmentes |
| Т | Narines | Non tubu aires, entourees par un rebord suréjevé | Non tubulaires, entources par un rebord sureleve | Tubulaires et allongees |
| 1 | Rostrodonte | Keratinise v s ble exterieurement | Keratinise, vis.ble exterieurement | Non keratinisé, non visible exterieurement |
| т | Position du disque oral | Ventrale | Ventrale | Dorsale |
| т | Forme du disque oral | En disque | En coupe | En entonnoir, avec des extensions latérales, portant des crêtes |
| т | Forme du labium inferieur du disque oral | Unilobée avec une extension médiane | Bilobée | Unflobée |
| T | Rangee marginale de papilles du labium supericur | Continue ou interrompue au milieu | Continue | Continue |
| т | Keratodontes | Presents | Présents ou absents | Absents |
| т. | Pesition de anus | Dextre | Dextre | Mud ane |

Tableau 2 Principaux caracteres differentiels entre les deux tribus de la sous-famille des LEPTORRACHIVAT Dubois, 1983, ains, qu'entre les genres et As voirs garnes qui les composent TC type de caractere A, concernant les adultes, O, concernant les sunfs, T, concernant les étards Indice de dimorphisme sexuel de la lle (52ze Sex Dimorphism Index ou SSDI, D) BOIS & O ILFR, 1998) rapport ten pour mille) de la longueur museurainus des milles adultes sur celle des femelles adultes

| | | LEPTOBRACIONA Dubois, 1983 | | ORL(HALAGDA) Tian & Hu, 1985 | | | |
|-----|---|--|-------------------|---|--|--|--------------------|
| (| Lumetere | Lischudi 1838 | | | | | unger ald, 1868 |
| | | Leptobeachum Tschadi, 1838 | Liu, 1945 | | Actumphrane Boulenger, 1919 | Scattger Theobald, 1868 | |
| ΑΪ | Clandes sur les paupieres | Abs | entes | Pr | ésentes | | |
| ۸. | Canthus rostra is | Tres obtus, regio | n loreate convexe | Peu distinct, region loresse | verticale ou legerement | concave | |
| Ą | Anneau tympunique | Visible | Caché | Present | A | bsent | |
| ٨ | Repli supraty mpanique | Fin | | Legérement épaissi | Très epass | sı, glanda aire | |
| A. | Epines ou spinules sur la levre superieure des mules | Absentes Grandes épines consques noires, tres kerutinisées | | Spinules, petites mais bien keratimisées et noires | | | |
| A | Epines ou asperites sur le dos | Abs | entes | Présentes | Présentes | Présentes ou absentes | |
| ١. | Dents maxillaires | Présentes | | Presentes | Absentes | Présentes en bourgeon ou absentes | |
| ١ ٨ | Reseau giandulaire sur je dos | Pré | sent | , | bsent | | |
| ١. | Nombreuses pet tes glandes sur es flanes | Présentes | | Λ | bsentes | | |
| ١ | Position des glandes axillaires | Sur es flancs à l'arrière de l'insertion des bras | | Sur les flanes à l'arrière de l'insertion des bras | | es côtés portrac | |
| ١. | Glandes pectorales | Absentes | | Presentes, de même taille que les glandes axillaires | Presentes, plus grandes que es glandes axillares | Presentes, de même taille que les glandes axillaires | |

Tableau 2 (suite et fin).

| | | LEPTOBRACIHINI Dubois, 1983 | | | 801.41.46757 & Hu, 1985 | |
|----|---|---|---|--|--|--------------------------------------|
| TC | Cara, kre | Leptotracham Tschudi, 1838 | | Oreolalux Myers & Leviton, 1962 | | nger ild, 1868 |
| | | Leptotruchaum Tschudt, 1838 | Vihrasaphora Liu, 1945 | | delurophysie Boulenger, 19.9 | Scutiger Thenha.d, 1868 |
| Α | Petites g andes rondes et plates sur les bras | Abso | ntes | P | resentes | |
| Α | Epines nuptrales sur le dorgt l | Abso | mies | Noires, de taille moyenne | Noires et grosses, comques | No.res, assez petites |
| Α | Eta ement des epines nuptia es du doigi l | Abso | rntes | S etendant sur 1 av ant-bras | Jusqui a la premiere | articulation du doigt l |
| Α | Epines nuptrales sur partie interne du do gt H | Absentes | | | nême aspect sur le doigt l | |
| A | Epines nuptiales sur le doigt III | Absentes | | Absentes | Absentes | De même aspect que sur le doigt l |
| Α | Elargissement des bras des mâles par rapport a ceux des femelles | Absent | Present | Absent | Absent | ou présent |
| Α | Relation entre les talons forsque les membres posterieurs sont mis a augle droit par rapport au corps | Tres eloignés | | En contact | Très e | t _i oignés |
| Α | Indice moyen de dimorphisme sexuel de tai, e (SSDI) | Inferieur à 1000 (mâles plus petits que les femelles) | Superieur à 1000 (males plus grands que les femelles) | | neur à 1000 etits que les femelles) | |
| Α | Glandes femorales | Prese | entes | Présentes | Ab | tentes |
| A | Sacs vocaux | Présents | Absents ou presents | Absents ou presents | Absents ou présents | Absents |
| 0 | Pigmentation des œufs | Pres | ente | | Absente | |
| T | Marque en forme de Y sur la queue | Absente ou presente | Présente | | Absente | |
| T | Nurmes | Surmontées d'une petite projection mediodorsale | Cernees de dix petites projections | Surmontées de deux ou trois petites project ons mediodorsales | | tees d'une on mediodorsale |

(G1) Genre Leptobrachum Tschudt, 1838. – Apognose. Voir sous la tribu. – Répartition: Voir sous la tribu. Contenu Deux sous-genres, dont le tableau 2 donne les principaux caractères diagnostiques différentiels.

(sG1a) Sous-genre Leptobrachium Tschudi, 1838 Espèce-type, par monotypie: Leptobrachium hasseltu Tschudi, 1838. - Apognose: Pas d'apomorphie morphologique connue, taxon défini seulement par des états de caractères plésiomorphes. Répartition; Birmanie, Brunei, Chine (Haman et Yunnan), Inde (Assam et Meghalaya), Indonésie, Laos, Malaisie Philippines, Thailande et Vietnam. Contenu Quinze espèces: Leptobrachum (Leptobrachium; abbotti (Cochran, 1926), Lentobrachium (Lentobrachium) banae Lathron, Murphy, Orlov & Ho. 1998; Leptobrachium (Leptobrachium) buchardi Ohler, Tenvié & David. 2004; Leptobrachium (Leptobrachium) chapaense (Bourret, 1937), Leptobrachium (Leptobrachum) gunungense Malkmus, 1996; Leptobrachium (Leptobrachum) hamanense Ye & Fei, 1993. Lentobrachium (Lentobrachium), hasseltii Tschudi, 1838. Lentobrachium (Lentobrachum) hendricksoni Taylor, 1962: Lentobrachium (Lentobrachium) huashen Fei & Ye. 2005: Lentobrachium (Lentobrachium) montanum Fischer, 1885, Lentobrachium (Lentobrachium) mouhoti Stuart, Sop & Neang, 2006; Leptobrachnun (Leptobrachnun) nigrons Berry & Hendrickson, 1963; Leptobrachium (Leptobrachium) pullum (Smith, 1921); Leptobrachium (Leptobrachum) smithi Matsui, Nabhitabhata & Panha, 1998; Leptobrachum (Leptobrachum) xanthospilum Lathrop, Murphy, Orlov & Ho, 1998.

(sG1b) Sous-genre Vibris suphora Liu, 1945. Espèce-type, par monotypie. Vibris suphora Liu, 1945. – Apognose. Prèsence de 2 a 61 épines larges, noires, sur le bord de la lèvre supérieure du mâte reproducteur, indice moyen de dimorphisme sexuel de taille (SSDI, DUBOIS & OPLER, 1998) supérieur a 1000. narine du têtard entourée de 10 netités projections.

Répartition' Chine (Fujian, Guangdong, Guangxi, Guizhou, Hunan, Jiangxi, Sichuan, Yunnan et Zhejiang) et Vietnam — Contenu Six espèces: Leptobrachium (Vibrissaphora) aulaoneum (Yang, Chen & Ma, 1983), Leptobrachium (Vibrissaphora) bringi (Lu, 1945), Leptobrachium (Vibrissaphora) echunatum Dubois & Ohler, 1998; Leptobrachium (Vibrissaphora) echunatum Dubois & Ohler, 1998; Leptobrachium (Vibrissaphora) liu (Pope, 1947); Leptobrachium (Vibrissaphora) liu (Pope, 1947); Leptobrachium (Vibrissaphora) neoclubensis (Cloba) 2005)

(b) Tribu OREOLALAGIN'Tan & Hu, 1985. Genre-type: Orrolalar Myers & Levton, 1962. Apoguose' Présence de glandes pectorales. Répartition: Bhoutan, Birmanie, Chine (Gansu, Guizhou, Henan, Hubei, Ningxia, Qinghia, Shaanxi, Sichuan, Xizang et Yunnan), Inde (Jammia & Kashmir, Meghalaya et Sikkim) et Népal. Contenuc Deux genres, dont le tableau 2 donne les principaux caractéres diagnostiques différentels.

(G2) Genre Oreoldux Myers & Leviton, 1962. Espèce-type, par designation originale Surger pingut Liu, 1943 — Apognose. Pas d'apomorphie morphologique connue, taxon seulement défini par des états de caracteres plesionorphes. — Répartition Chine (Gansu, Guzhou, Henan, Hubei, Shaanxi, Sichuan et Yunnan). — Contenu, Dux-sept espèces. Oreoldux chiandrensis Tian, 1983. Oreoldus granulosus Fei, Fy & Chen, 1991; Oreoldus pingdongeniss Ma, Vang & Li, 1983. Oreoldus hampleceniss Liu & Fei, 1979. Oreoldus handronensis Hu & Fei, 1979. Oreoldus monor (Liu & Hu, 1960). Oreoldus nutripani taiss Wu, Zhao, Inger & Schaffer, 1993. Oreoldus nunquagenis Fei & Ye, 1999. Oreoldus nuemonist (Liu & Hu, 1960). Oreoldus pingui (Liu, 1943). Oreoldus pingui (Liu, 1943). Oreoldus pingui (Liu, 1943). Weblast pingui (Liu, 1944). Webla

(Liu, 1943), Oreolalax schmidti (Liu, 1947); Oreolalax weigoldi (Vogt, 1924); Oreolalax xiangchengensis Fei & Huang, 1983.

(G3) Genre Scutiger Theobald. 1868. Apognose: Tympan absent; replis supratympani-ques larges et épais, ressemblant à des glandes parotoides. - Répartition. Bhoutan, Birmanic, Chine (Gansu, Ningxia, Qinghau, Sizamax, Sichuan, Xizang et Yunnan), Inde (Jammu & Kashmir, Meghalaya et Sikkim) et Népal. Contenu Deux sous-genres, dont le tableau 2 donne les principaux caractéres diagnostques différentiels.

(sG3a) Sous-genre Aelurophryne Boulenger, 1919. Espèce-type, par monotypie: Bufo manulus Günther, 1896 Apognose. Des êpines de très grande taille, très keratinisées, composant les pelotes unptiales — Répartition. Bloutan, Birmanie et Chine (Qinghai, Sichuan, Xizang et Yunnan) Contenu: Huit espèces: Scutiger (Aelurophryne, adungensis Dubois, 1979, Scutiger (Aelurophryne) bhutanesiss Delorme & Dubois, 2001; Scutiger (Aelurophryne) prophyne, glandulatus (Liu. 1995). Scutiger (Aelurophryne) gongskanensis Srag & Su. 1978. Scutiger (Aelurophryne, judongensis Fei, Ye & Jiang, 1996; Scutiger (Aelurophryne) mamma-tus (Gunther, 1896). Scutiger (Aelurophryne) minimis Fei & Ye, 1986; Scutiger (Aelurophryne) prophyre) tuboreculatus Liu & Fei, 1979.

(sG3b) Sous-genre Scuttger Theobald, 1868 Espèce-type, par monotypie Bombinator skimmensus Blyth, 1854. – Apognose. Dents maxillaures en bourgeon ou absentes; présence de pelotes nuptuales sur les doigts III chez le mâle reproducteur. Répartition: Bhoutan, Chine (Gansu, Ningxia, Qinghai, Shaami, Sichuan et Xizang), Inde (Jammu & Kashmir, Meghalaya et Sikimpi et Népal Conteure. Neuf espèces Scutiger; Castiger in Meghalaya et Sikimpi et Népal Conteure. Neuf espèces Scutiger; Castiger in Meghalaya et Sikimpi et Népal Conteur. Neuf espèces Scutiger; Castiger in Georgier il Bodraga, 1898; Scutiger (Scutiger) et minimensus Liu & Hu, 1960; Scutiger (Scutiger) in panensus Dubois, 1974; Scutiger (Scutiger) magchanesus Faq, 1985; Scutiger (Scutiger) in panensus Faq, 1985; Scutiger (Scutiger) pinga wensis Liu & Tian, 1978; Scutiger (Scutiger) sikummensis (Blyth, 1854)

(2) Sous-famille LEFTOLALIGINAE INV GENTE-type: Leptolalar Dubois. 1980 Apognose: Tète étroute, plus longue que large, tubercule palmaire externe arrondi, bien plus petit que le tubercule interne; tétard avec une entaille médiane sur chaque labium, un disque oral en forme de coupe, un espace entre les papilles umarginales et les papilles submarginales du disque oral, huit paires ou plus de papilles medianes sur le velum ventral, et deux groupes de pustules posterieurement a l'ariene du plafond buccal. Répartition Birmaine, Brunet, Cambodge, Chine (Fujuan, Hong Kong, Guangst, Sichuan, Yunnan et Zheigang), Indonesse, Laos, Malaisse, Natuna, Thailande et Vietnam. Contenic Deux genres, dont le tableau 3 donne les principaux caractères diaenostiques différentes.

(G4) Genre Leptobrachella Smith, 1925 Espéce-type, par monotype. Leptobrachaun natunae Günther, 1895 Apognose: Adultes de taile très petite; doigt II ben plus long que le doigt I; extrémites des doigts et orteils avec des disques lanceolés, rostrodonte fatblement kératinisé, cassable ou flexible. Répartition: Brune, Indonesse, Malaisse et Natuna – Conteur: Sept espèces: Leptobrachella bidiensis Smith, 1931, Leptobrachella bervacus Dring, 1984, Leptobrachella myobregi Smith, 1932; Leptobrachella minate (Günther, 1895); Leptobrachella palmata Inger & Stuebing, 1992, Leptobrachella para Dring, 1984; Leptobrachella sersamae Dring, 1984.

Kératodontes

| TC | C Caractere Leptobrachella | | Leptolulax Dubots, 1980 | | |
|----|--|---|--|---|--|
| ic | Caractere | Smith, 1925 Lalax nov. | | Leptolalax Dubois, 1980 | |
| Α | Glandes sur les paupières | Absentes | Prés | entes | |
| Α | Fonne des glandes axil.aires | Petits mamelons coniques | | rges Naties | |
| A | Repli glandulaire latéro-ventral | Absent Présent | | Absent | |
| A | Extremites des doigts et orteils | Disques lancéoles | Arrondies | | |
| A | Longueur respective des doigts l'et Il | ∐>I Subegaux | | egaux | |
| A | Tubercules surnuméraires sous les pieds | Absents | Pré | sents | |
| Т | Nannes | Surmontées d'une projection médiodorsale | Cernées de quatre lobes juxtaposés | Surmoniées d'une projection médiodorsale | |
| Г | Rostrodonte | Faiblement keratinisé, flexible, portant des dentelures fines | Tres kérat nisé, cassable, portant des dentelures grossières | Tres keratınısé, cassable, portant des dentelures fines | |

Tableau 3, -- Principaux caractères différentiels entre les deux genres de la sous-famille des LEPTOLAL 4GP AE nov TC type de caractère A, concernant les adultes: T, concernant les tétands.

(G5) Genre Lepiolulax Dubois, 1980. - Apognose. Tubercules surnuméraires présents sur les orteils, mais absents sur les doigts. Répartition: Birmanie, Brunei, Cambodge, Chine (Fujian, Hong Kong, Guangu, Sichuan, Yunnan et Zhejang), Laos, Indonésie, Malaisie, Thatlande et Vietnam. Content Deux sous-genres, dont le tableau 3 donne les principaux caractères diagnostiques différentels.

Présents

Absents

(sG5a) Sous-genre Lalar (nov Espèce-type par présente designation: Leptolalax hourert Dubos). 1983 Etymologie du nomen, grec lados, "basard", nacine employée dans pluseurs nomina génériques de la famille Apognore Repli glandulaire latero-ventral présent; narines du têtard cernées de 4 lobes juxtaposes. Répartitions Birmaine, Cambodge, Chine (Fujuan, Guangu, Hong Kong, Sichuan, Vinnan et Ehejang), Indones, Laos Malsisies, (Thailance Vietnam Contemic Onze espèces Leptolalax (Lalax) alpinus Fei, Ye & Li, 1991, Leptolalax, Lalax v, but Fei & Ye, 1991; Leptolalax (Lalax), but Fei & Ye, 1991; Leptolalax (Lalax), na Fei & Ye, 1991; Leptolalax (Lalax), but Fei & Ye, 1991; Leptolalax (Lalax), sohamensis (Liu, 1950), Leptolalax (Lalax), peloditroides (Boulenger, 1893); Leptolalax (Lalax), phivaidis Oblier, Marquis, Swan & Grosgean, 2000, Leptolalax (Lalax), sunga (Lathrop, Murphy, Orlov & Ho, 1998, Leptolalax (Lalax), tuberous lager, Orlov & Davessky, 1999; Leptolalax (Lalax), vanga (Lathrop, Murphy, Orlov & Ho, 1998, Leptolalax (Lalax), tuberous lager, Orlov & Davessky, 1999; Leptolalax (Lalax), ventrapinactus Es, Ye & L. 1914

Note: Le nomen L'alto interatir À nalerson, 1871 a cte traditionnellement associe a une espece du gene Mecophin i Dournath La description originale de cette espece (Associson, 1871 29, ansi que la rediscription et la figure donnée par Antoricos (1879 844) correspondent manifestement a une espece du sous-gene Laito, proche de Leptoloniar pedas tradicios ou identaque a celleca. Leptolonia Interratis Dans Fattente d'une révision de cessous-gene, dont la nécessite s'impose, nous trations provisorement es-deux nomunes sendencies vomme validos. Le nomen diversib, fatt clattement reference au erent alandatura. latéro-ventral diagnostique du sous-genre. Quant à l'espèce traditionnellement connue sous le nomen de Megophrys lateralis, elle figure ci-dessous sous le nomen de Xenophrys major

(sG5b) Sous-genre Leptolalax Dubois, 1980. Espèce-type, par désignation originale: Leptobrachium gracile Gunther, 1872. Apognose: Pas d'apomorphie morphologique connue, taxon seulement défini par des états de caractères plésiomorphes. - Répartition: Brunei, Indonésie et Malaisie. - Contenu. Huit espèces: Leptolalax (Leptolalax) arayai Matsui, 1997; Leptolalax (Leptolalax) drange Dubois, 1987; Leptolalax: (Leptolalax) gracults (Gunther, 1872); Leptolalax (Leptolalax) hamidi Matsui, 1997; Leptolalax (Leptolalax) hetropus Boulenger, 1900, Leptolalax (Leptolalax) kajangensis Grismer, Grismer & Youmans, 2004; Leptolalax (Leptolalax) maurus Inger, Lakim, Biun & Yambun, 1997, Leptolalax (Leptolalax) pietus Malkmus, 1992.

(3) Sous-famille MEGOPHRYINAE Bonaparte, 1850 (1931). Apognose: Présence de deux lignes claires reliant mâchoire inférieure et bras, deux fines crêtes glandulaires présentes sur le dos: tubercule palmaire interne allongé, s'étendant sur le premier métacarpien; tubercule palmaire externe allongé et diffus: pelotes nuntiales sur les côtés internes des faces dorsales des doigts I et II présentes, s'étendant jusqu'au poignet sur le doigt I, plus restreinte sur le doigt II; narines du tétard plus proches des pupilles que de l'extrémité du museau, en position dorso-latérale, en forme de tubes externes allongés; extrémite de la queue du têtard arrondie; disque oral du têtard en position dorsale, en forme d'entonnoir, entièrement entouré de minuscules papilles; têtard avec des crêtes sur les labia et un rostrodonte souple, ce dernier portant des dentelures en forme de dents de peigne, des papilles prélinguales non digitées et convexes, pas de papilles sur l'arène du plancher buccal, des arêtes longitudinales délimitant antérieurement l'arène du plancher buccal, des volets enveloppant la partie posténeure des arêtes longitudinales, pas de papilles médianes du vélum ventral, une arête prénariale en forme de U, un renforcement de la paroj antérieure des choanes, des papilles postnariales hées à une arête, des arêtes latérales sous forme d'arêtes longitudinales, une arête médiane de forme phallique, des protubérances à la suite des arêtes longitudinales, et l'intérieur de l'arène du plafond buccal lisse tition, Bangladesh, Birmanie, Brunei, Cambodge, Chine (Anhui, Fujian, Gansu, Guangdong, Guangxi, Guizhou, Hubei, Hong Kong, Hunan, Jiangxi, Shanxi, Sichuan, Xizang, Yunnan et Zhenang), Inde (Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bengale occidental, Meghalava et Sikkim), Indonésie, Laos, Malaisie, Nepal, Philippines, Thailande et Vietnam. - Contemi: Deux tribus, dont le tableau 4 donne les principaux caracteres diagnostiques différentiels.

(a) Tribu Macorumini Bonaparte, 1850 (1931). Genre-type: Megophinis Kuhli & Van Hasselt, 1822. Apognose: Présence d'un repli de peau en arrière du crâne, présence d'excrossances glandulaires en forme d'épines à la commissure des lèvres et sur le doix deux fines crétes glandulaires en l'ecôté du dos. Repartition Birmaine, Brunei. Chane (Guangay, Guzhou, Human, Jiangy), schoulair et Yunnain, Indonese, Malaise, Philippines, Thailande et Vietnam. Contenur Trois genres, dont le tableau 4 donne les principaux caractères diamostiques différentiels.

(G6) Genre Borneoplarys nos Espèce-type, par prèsente designation Megophrys educarduntei linger, 1989. Etymologie du nomen Borneo, nom de l'île où wi l'espèce-type, et grec plurine, "crapaud" contamine par ophrus, "paupiere" (par attraction du nomen Megophrys Kuhl & Van Hasselt, 1822), racine employee dans pluseurs nomina generiques de la famille

Tab.cau 4 Princ paux caractères differentiels entre les deux tribus iet reconnues dans la sous-famille des MEGOPHRYIME Bonaparte, 1850 (1931).

Tous ces caractères concernent les adultes.

| Caractere | | Mr GOPI/RYINI Ionaparie, 1850 (193 | 1) | λενοριμ | 975/ nov |
|---|--|---|---------------------------------------|---|--|
| Constitution | Borneophrys nov. | Brachytarsophrys Tian & Hu, 1983 | Megophrys Kuhl & Van Hasselt, 1822 | Ophryophryne Boulenger, 1903 | Xenophres Günther, 1864 |
| Forme de la tête | | Tres large | | Carrée | |
| Proportion de la tete | | Plus de 25 % du corp | 5 | Moms de 25 % du corps | Plus de 25 % du corps |
| Projection du museau en avant de la máchoire | Présente | Abs | ente | Prés | ente |
| Repli de peau en arriere du crâne et epaississement de la peau du crâne | | Présents | | Abs | ents |
| Arètes on angle entre les narines à l'extremite du museau | | Présentes | | Absentes, museau tronqué | Présentes |
| Projections palpébrales | | Présentes | | Présentes | Présentes ou absentes |
| Forme des projections pa pebrales | Composees de deux petits tubercuies | Composees de 3 à 5 petits tubercules | Unique, grande et large projection | Unique et co | |
| Epines sur la levre superieure des males | Presentes, fines et brones | Presentes, fines et brunes ou absentes | Absentes | Presentes, fines et brunes | Presentes, fines et brunes, ou absentes |
| Epines sur la levre inferieure des males | | Absentes | | Présentes, fines et transparentes, ou absentes | Présentes, fines et brunes, ou absentes |
| Dents maxillaires | | Présentes | | Absentes | Présentes ou absentes |
| Dents vomeriennes | Absentes | Presentes | Presentes | Absentes | Présentes ou absentes |
| Pupille | | Verticale | | Horizontale | Verticale |
| Тулграп | Present, très petit | Absent | Présent, très petit | Présent, large | Présent ou absent |
| Olande en contact avec le repli glandulaire supratympan que | Pres | ente | Absente | Presente | Presente ou absente |
| Exeroissances glandulaires en forme d'épines à la commissure des levres et sur le dos | | Présentes | | Abse | entes |
| Deux fines cretes glandi, aires sur le dos | | Presentes parallèles et sur le côté du dos | | Presentes, forma | |
| Asperites ou épines sur le dos | | Absentes | | Présentes o | u absentes |
| Epmes sur le bas du ventre et à l'interiour des cuisses | | Absentes | | Absentes | Présentes, fines et brunes, ou absentes |
| Eparsseur des membres postérieurs | Non massifs | Massifs | Non massifs | Non massifs o | u peu massifs |
| Rezation entre les talons lorsque les membres postérieurs sont mis à ang e droit avec le corps | | Florgnes | | Elou se touchant o | |
| Epines sur les pieds | | Absentes | | Presentes o | ra absentes |

- Apognose. Pas d'apomorphe morphologique connue, taxon défini seulement par des états de caractères plésiomorphes. Répartition. Malaisie. - Contenir. Une espèce: Borneophrys edwardinae (Inger, 1989).
- (G7) Genre Brachytarsophrys Tian & Hu., 1983. Espèce-type, par désignation originale Leptobrachitum carinense Boulenger, 1889. Apognose Profil arrondi; pattes postéreures très massives, charnues. Répartition: Birmanne, Chine (Guangxi, Guizhou, Hunan, Jiangxi, Sichuan et Vinnan), Thailande et Vietnam. Contenu: Cinq espèces: Brachytarsophry scarinensis (Boulenger, 1889), Brachytarsophry schuannanensis Fei, Ye & Huang, 2001, Brachytarsophrys feae (Boulenger, 1887); Brachytarsophrys feae (Boulenger, 1887); Brachytarsophrys platyparietus Rao & Yang, 1997.
- (G8) Genre Megophrys Kuhl & Van Hasselt, 1822. Espéce-type, par monotype: Megophrys montana Kuhl & Van Hasselt, 1822. Apognose Profil du museau pountu, portant une projection pointue; une unique projection palpébrale, large et aplaite, sur le bord de la paupière supérieure. Répartition Brunci, Indonésis, Malaisie, Philippines et Thailande. Contenur Cring espéces: Megophrys kobayushik Malkmus & Matsu, 1997; Megophrys Inguya (Taylor, 1920); Megophrys in montana Kuhl & Van Hasselt, 1822; Megophrys in musuta Schlegel, 1838; Metophrys stringerei (Taylor, 1920).
- (b) Tribu XENOPHRININ nov. Genre-type. Xenophrys Gunther, 1864. Apognose: Pas d'apomorphie morphologique connue, taxon défini seulement par des états de caractère plésiomorphes. Répartition. Bangladesh, Birmanie. Brunel, Cambodge, Chine (Anhui, Fujian, Gaisiu, Guangdong, Guangxi, Guizhou, Hubei, Hong Kong, Hunan, Jiangxi, Shaanxi, Shanxii (*), Sichuan, Xirang, Yunnan et Zhejiang), Inde (Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bengale occidental, Meghalaya et Sikkim), Indonésie, Laos, Malaisse. Népal, Thailande et Vietnam. Contenu; Deux genres, dont le tableau 4 donne les principaux caractères diagnostiques différentiels.
- (G9) Genre Ophrivophrime Boulenger, 1903. Espèce-type, par monottype. Ophryophrime increasional Boulenger, 1903. Apognuse: Fiet érroite (moins de 25% de la longueur du corps); extrémité du museau tronquée, sans projection dermale; pupille horizontale, dents maixiliares absentes. Répartition: Cambodge, Chine (Guangxi et Yuanan). Laos, Thailande et Vietnam. Contenu. Cinq espèces: Ophry ophryue gett Obler, 2003. Ophryophry me morastoma Boulenger, 1903. Ophryophryne pachyproctus Kou, 1985; Ophryophryne swirora Stuart, Sok & Neang, 2006.
- (G10) Gener Xenophrys Gunther, 1864. Espèce-type, par monotype Xenophrys monticola Gunther, 1864. Apognose: Pas d'apomorphie morphologique connue, taxon defini seulement par des états de caractères pfésiomorphes. Répartition. Bangladesh, Birmanie, Brunei, Cambodge, Chine (Anhiu, Fujian, Gansu, Guangdong, Guangxi, Guurhou, Hong Kong, Huber, Hunan, Jiangxi, Shanxi (3), Sichuan, Xizang, Yunnan et Zhejiangl, Inde (Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bengale occidental, Meghalaya et Sikkim), Indonesie. Lios, Malasse, Népal, Thailande et Vietnam - Contenu: Trente-trois espèces Xenophris acerus (Boulenger, 1993). Xenophris auraleuris (Ohler, Sana & Daltry, 2002), Xenophris baluenisi (Boulenger, 1899); Xenophris binchiadus (19e & Fen, 1995), Xenophris condeptora (Boulenger, 1899), Kenophris diareuments (Nao & Yang, 1997); Xenophris va ding (Inger, Stebern)

& Tan, 1995); Xenophrys gagantica (Liu, Hu & Yang, 1960); Xenophrys glandulosa (Fet, Ye & Huang, 1991); Xenophrys huangslamensis (Fet & Ye, 2005); Xenophrys migdongensis (Fet & Ye, 1983); Xenophrys huangslamensis (Fot & Ye, 2005); Xenophrys migdongensis (Fet & Ye, 1983); Xenophrys huangslamensis (Fet & Ye, 1991); Xenophrys medogensis (Hou, Yen, 1968); Xenophrys mangslamensis (Fet & Ye, 1991); Xenophrys mankangsensis (Liu, 1960); Xenophrys andeparsis (Liu, 1960); Xenophrys andeparsis (Liu, Xenophrys parallelus (Inger & Iskandar, 2005); Xenophrys parallelus (Inger & Iskandar, 2005); Xenophrys and (Boulenger, 1983); Xenophrys robusta (Boulenger, 1988); Xenophrys sparsa (Liu, 1950), Xenophrys shuchengensis (Tian, Gu & Sun, 2000); Xenophrys spunata (Liu, 4 Hu, 1973); Xenophrys wan uensis (Fet, Jiang & Zheng, 2001), Xenophrys und ulangslamensis (Ye & Fet, 1995); Xenophrys shushamensis (Ye &

Note: Le nomes Megulophrys Kenpun Annandale, 1912 a età traditionnellement associà a une espece du genre Meguphry so va Kenpulpry. Poutrant la description originale de cette espèce (ANNADALE, 1912 20) mentionne que la peau du ventre est "obscurely granular", que les dogist portent des disques très petits mais distincts et que les oriels portent des petits disques et une palimaire rudimentaire. L'étude de l'holotype 231 17013 (Other & Grospian, observationis medites de decembre 2000 au. 2000peal Survey of India. Kolkota, Indic) confirme la presence d'une peau ventrale granuleuse Cette peau est toujours lisse chez les Megophryides. Le ventre granuleux chet ne revanche un caractere de rainettes ("treeftop bell) skim". OHI IR, 1999. 40) Bien que les Megophryidae pussent avoir les extrémites des doigist et orteils obtiesse, légerement d'arapse, celler eine portent jamans de vraus disques mede est pells. I'holotype de cette espèce est a dosponarus de dents voménennes. Megulophry s kenupri correspond manifestement a une espèce de la sous-famille Rhacophomaa très probablement un membre du gener Philaturis Avant toute revision taxinomique de ce genre, le nomen Philaturis Senupi (Annandale, 1912) doit donc être ajoute a ceux dont Bossury X Dissois (2001) ont dresse l'irventaire.

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APPENDICE 1

MATÉRIEL EXAMINÉ

Les abrevations susantes désignent les collections où sont stocké les spécimens utilinés pour les trabaux de (fischaix les ous presse et De trouser et al. (soumer) ASIZE. Institute of Zoologo, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Berjing, IEBR, Institut of Ecological and Biological Research, Hanoi, Vertnam, EFMMH, Field Misseum of Natural History, Chago, USA, K.U.H.E. Kyoto University, Kyoto MMHNI, Misseum Autonial History Chago, USA, K.U.H.E. Kyoto University, Kyoto SMHNI, Misseum National d'Historie Naturelle, Paris Les numéros de collection des specimens adultes observes pour les analyses morphologiques sont imprimes no romain, eux des étatrdes in tradique et eux utilises dans les analyses moleculiures en gras Les specimens provenant de l'Université de Kyoto et quelques-uns provenant du Field Misseum of Chicago sont demours di informations concernant la localife

Alvies obsteirnans. - France: Gard, Goudargues, MN-HN 1988 7558-7559, 7570, 7918-7919, Loire, Sury-le-Comtal, MNHN 1981 689-697, MNHN 1998.0120; Pyrenées-Atlantiques, MN-HN 1984 1082, 1984 1161, 1984 2087-219.

Borneophrus edwardinge. - MALAISIE Sahah, FMNH 250931.

Brachytarsophrys carmensis – KUHE 23946 CHINF Sichuan, FMNH 250800 (série) THAILANDE Chiang Mai, FMNH 175471-75, 175927, 176071, Phang Nga, Ramon Forest Park, MEHND 2000 2407 Jestression, considérable verse le Sud de l'aire de résurtifica canque de l'espèce et du sense.

Brachvarsophris Jeae. Birmanie Kakhien Hills, MNHN 1887 221; Mont Carin, MNHN 1893 528 Chine Yunnan, FMNH 218909-10, 218925 Vietnam. Mao Son, MNHN 1948 121; Tam Dao, MNHN 1948 122.

Discoglossus pretus. Espagne. MNHN 1988 7920-7921, Avila. Crespos, MNHN 1988 7985 FRANCE Seine, Jardim des Plantes de Paris, MNHN non catalogué. MAROC. Route près de Tamorot, MNHN 1685 7660-5984. MNHN 1987 925-930.

Leptobrachella baluensis MALAISIE Sabah, FMNH 250897-906, 250916, 250921-923, FMNH 244077 (série).

Leptobruchella njoberg, KUHE 17126 INDORTSIT Sarawak, 3⁴⁰ Divusion, Kapit District, Nanga G. Tekalin, FraNH 1 8122, 318127–128, 181818, 181840, 181841-44, 181841-44, 18181-51, 18156, 18164, 18166, 18168-169, 18171-172, 18176-177, 181812-183, 18187, 18180, 18196-199, 145257, 14556, 0146270-271, Sarawak, 3⁴⁰ Divusion, FFMH 222727, 22275, 22276, 73, 222306. MALASIF Sabah, Kmabatangan District, FMH 77593-94, Sabah, Mount Kina Balu, FMH 110661

Leptobrachella parva - Malaisif Sabah, FMNH 236732-236735, 236756, 236760, 236776, FMNH 246067 (sèrie)

Lentohrachella serasunae. - Indonésie: Sarawak. 7th Division. FMNH 222859-62

Leptobrachum; (Leptobrachum; chapaense THAILANDE Chiang Mai, FMNH 187439-41, VIETNAM Lao Car Province, Sa Pa. MNIIN 1938 89-92, 1948 117-120, 1997 5249-5257; Thanh Hoa Province, Ben En, MNHN 1997.5249, MNHN 1908 494 1998 5096-5097 1908 5107 1908 5118

Leptobrachum (Leptobrachum) hasseltu - Philitppines. Mindanao, FMNH 50919-23, 14893, Palawan, FMNH 51027-29

Leptobrachum (Leptobrachum hendricksom - KÜHE 15696, INDONÉSIE, Sarawak, FMNH 148283 (série) MALAISIE Kuala Lumpar, MNHN 1973 19. THAÎLANDF Trang Province, MNHN 2000 8708-8708.

2000 8708-8708.

Leptobruchum (Leptobruchum) montaman - Malaisir Sabah, Mount Kinabalu, FMNH 233242-47,

Sintlanz, FMNH 241746. Tawbunam, FMNH: 2417510 (série)

Leptobrachum (Leptobrachum) nigrops Indonésii: Sarawak, FMNH 148237-42, 148256-64

Leptobrachum, Leptobrachum) pullum THAÎLANDE. C'hang Mai, FMNH 172661-62, 173973-80, Phang Nga Province, FMNH. 206820 (série), MNHN 2000.2405

Leptobruchum (Leptobruchum) smithi ThaiLande Phang Nga Province, MNHN 2000 8225

Leptobrachium , Leptobrachium , sp. Birmane Mont Carin. MNHN 1981 3500-3512 Vietnam Annam, MNHN 1989 3501, 1989 3504-3505,1989 3507.

Leptobrachium (3 thrissaphora) echinatum Vietnam Lao Cai Province, Sa Pa, MNHN 1998 112-116, MNHN 1998 8585-8701, MNHN 1999, 5657

Leptolalax (Lalax), hourren VILTNAM MNHN 1937 93-95, 1996 8620, Lao Cai Province, Sa Pa, MNHN 1998 8737, MNHN 1998 8774, MNHN 1999 5659

Leptolalax (Lalax) heteropus. THAILANDE Phang Nga Province, MNHN P972

Leptolalus (Lalars) pelosh totales KLHE 20043. BIRMANIE. Carin Gheeu, MNHN 1893-519. Chilbi Schulm, Emel Shan, FMNH 49589 (scric) VIETNAM: Nghe An, Con Cuong, FMNH 255679-681, 225686

Leptolalax (Leptolalax) dringt - Mataiste Sabah, Kota Maradu District, FMNH 235586-601 Leptolalax (Leptolalax) gracifix - Malaiste Sabah, Mount Kina Balu, MNHN 1898,284-287, Sarawak,

7th Division, FMNH 5641, 9170, 12542, 13819, FMNH 222663-687, FMNH 244684-85 Leptolalax (Leptolalax) pictus. – Malaisti. Sabah, FMNH 236650, 236584, 236595, 236598, 236624, 236652.

Lentolulas sp. 1. - VIETNAM, Ben En, Thanh Hoa Province, MNHN 1998 6711-6713

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Xenophr.; lateralis Laos. Khammouane, FMNH 256440 441 IHali ANDE. Doi Inthanon, MNHN 1987 2182-2186 VIETNAM Lao Cai Province, Sa Pa, MNHN 1937 96-97, MNHN 1938 98-99, 8179-8180

Xenophrys nunor Thallandt Chiang Mai, FMNH 213944-45, FMNH 49567 (scrie). VIETNAM Lao Cai Province Sa Pa, MNHN 1999-5717.

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Rana khare (Kiyasetuo & Khare, 1986): present distribution, redescription of holotype and morphology of adults and tadpoles

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USM 607 Sautoment et Collection, 25 rac Guvert, 79005 Pans, France

The holotype of Rana khare is redescribed. Tadpole and adult female specimens are described with standard methodology and measurements are given. The external morphology and buccal structures of tadpoles are described. The presence ol lateral dermal flap is a secondary male character as it is absent in females. Comparison of adult morphology with other ranine groups shows Percorana to be a member of the genus Rana sensu Duxos groups shows Percorana to be a member of the genus Rana sensu Duxos to the properties of the properties of the properties of the not allow precise allocation. Presence of dermal flap in other ranid frog and function of these structures are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

In 1986, KIYASETUO & KHARŁ described a new frog from Nagaland, north-east India, and recreted for it a particular genus, Pieroruma, because of the presence of well-developed dermal flaps on sides of body and on thighs. Du sois (1992) considered this genus to be a subgenus of Rana Frost et al. (2006) did not study Pieroruma but considered it as a valid genus. As only male specimens have been collected from various parts of north-east India, the female and tadople morphology remained unknown.

We here give for the first time details on distribution, redescription of holotype, morphology of male and female adults and of tadpole, and data on reproduction of this poorly known species.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

ABBREVIATIONS

Collections

KSC. - Kohima Science College Museum, Kohima, Nagaland, India. ZSI. - Zoological Survey of India. Kolkota. West Bengal, India

Measurements

SVL, snout-vent length.

UEW, maximum width of inter upper evelid

Head: HW, head width HL, head length, from back of mandible to try of snott MN, distance from back of mandible to noted in MFE, distance from back of mandible to front of eye MBE, distance from back of mandible to front of eye MBE, distance from back of mandible to back of eye LFE, distance between front of eyes IN Butter-ranard distance Excl. distance from front of eye to head to short it E, eye length NS, distance from sort it I eye length NS, distance from sort it I eye length NS, distance from sort it I eye length NS, distance from the management of back of eye UE. Immumm distance between upercy evelds.

Forclimbs - HAL, hand length, from base of outer paimar tubercie to tip of foe. FLI, forcimble length, from eibbox to base of outer tubercle FLI. that finger length, from blass of first substruct. In tubercle (dl to 4, finger dilatation width for fingers I to IV fwl to 4, finger width for fingers I to IV HGL, humeral sland length

Haddonbs FL femur length, from vent to knee TL, thba length FOL, foot length, from base of intermetatical laberelect typ for Ger FL footing to length, from base of first substructual rubercle tid. to 5, toe dilatation width for toes I to V ts I to 5, toe width for toes I to V, IM I, length of inner metatical therele TL. inner toe length.

Webbing MTF, distance from distal edge of metatrasal tuberele to maximum incurvation of web between third and fourth toe TFF, distance from maximum incurvation of web between that and fourth toe to tip of fourth toe MTFF, distance from distal edge of metatarsal tuberele to maximum incurvation of web between fourth and fifth toe. FFFF, distance from maximum incurvation of web between fourth and fifth toe or top of fourth toe WTFP, webbing between third and fourth toe (from base of first subarticular tuberele). WFF, webbing between third and fourth to when folded along fourth toe (from base of first subarticular tuberele). WIL webbing between fourth and fifth toe when folded along fourth toe firm base of first subarticular tuberele). WIL webbing between fourth and fifth toe when folded along fourta toe (from base of first subarticular tuberele).

SPECIMENS STUDIED

KSC 100-102 (adult &) and KSC 115 (adult ?), Jokhoma river (26°06'N, 92°02'E; alt 1600 m); KSC 103-105 (adult &) and KSC 116-117 (adult ?), Rokhroma stream (26°25'N, 94°07'E; alt. 1440 m); KSC 106-108 (adult &), and KSC 118-119 (adult ?), Tsureng stream (26°05'N, 94°05'E, alt. 1050 m); KSC 109-112 (adult &) and KSC 113-114 (adult ?), Japu stream (26°04'N, 94°05'E, alt. 1080 m); KSC 051-072, tadpoles from Japu and Tsureng streams.

METHODOLOGY

Amplecting pairs were collected in the field and eggs obtained in the laboratory for further study of development. Adult males and females were preserved in 8 ° commercial

formaldehyde solution and tadpoles were preserved in 10 ° « commercial formaldehyde solution. A series of 25 tadpoles at stage 38 (Gosster, 1960) was used for description. Holotype and paratype were described by A O in ZSI in Kolkota using standard methods. Morphological terminology of tadpole follows ALTIG & McDiakabio (1998), ketatodont row formula (KRF) follows Dusois (1995) and developmental stages were determined according to Gosser, (1960). Terminology of bucco-pharyngeal features of tadpoles follows Wassersus (1976), preparation for SEM examination comprised dehydration (ethanol), critical-pointdrying (liquid carbon dioxide) and gold sputter surface coating Tadpole and adult measurments were taken with a dial vernier caliper according to the methodologies of Grossean (2006), OHLER (1996) and OHLER et al. (2002), respectively.

Mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum were obtained for all variables on a personal computer using SPSS program. Non-parametric statistics (Mann-Whitney U test) were applied to compare males and females.

RESULTS

DISTRIBUTIONAL RECORD

Two adult males of this species were first collected from Sanuoru and Rukhroma waterfalls (26°25'N, 94°07'E, alt. 1400-1440 m) in Kolima district of Nagaland, India and described by KIYASETUO & KHARE (1986) respectively as the holotype (ZSI A.9095) and paratype (ZSI A.9097) of a new species (CHANDA et al., 2000). Since the original description of the species in 1986, male specimens have been reported from various parts of north-east India: Arunachal Pradesh (CHANDA, 1994; POWER & BRAND, 2001). Nagaland (Ao et al., 2003); bank of river Tivang, Sairang (23°36'N, 93°90'E; alt 2000-2500 m), 21 km from Alzawl, Mizoram (Dev & RAMANUAN, 2003), and Dhaleswari river, Bairab, Mizoram (Stx. & MATHEW, 2001) Ado et al (2003) gave the range extension in Nagaland as Rukhroma (alt. 1440 m) and Jokhoma (alt. 1600 m). During the present survey, amplecting parts were recorded from Jokhoma river (alt 1600 m), Rokhroma stream (alt 1440 m), Tsureng stream (alt. 1050 m) and Janu stream (alt. 1050 m).

DESCRIPTION OF HOLOTYPE

ZSI A 9095, adult & (fig. 1) Sanuoru River, Kohima, Nagaland, India

Size and general aspect (1) Specimen of moderate size (SVL 50.5 mm), body moderately robust.

Head (2) Head moderate, longer (HL 19.1 mm) than wide (HW 17.9 mm; MN 15.9 mm; MFE 11.5 mm, MBE 6.2 mm), flat (3) Snout rounded, slightly protruding, its length (SL 8.35 mm) longer than horizontal dameter of eye (EL 5.65 mm). (4) Cantus rostralis rounded, loreal region concave: rectangular in cross section, (5) Interorbital space



Fig. 1. Holotype of Pteroranu khare Kiyasetuo & Khare, 1986, ZSI A9095, adult male, SVL 50 5 mm: (a) dorsal view: (b) ventral view

flat, less broad (IUE 453 mm) than upper eyelid (UEW 5.09 mm) and than internarial distance (IN 5.81 mm), distance between front of eyes (IFE 9.7 mm) about three fourth of distance between back of eyes (IBE 13.6 mm), (6) Nostrils oval, with small flap of skin laterally, closer to eye (EN 3.66 mm) than to up of snout (NS 4.30 mm) (7) Pupil not observable (in preservative), (8) Tympanum (TYP 2.78 mm) distunct, oval, oblique, less than half eye length, tympanum-eye distance (TYE 2.63 mm) about its diameter. (9) Pincal ocellus absent. (10) Vomernne ridge present, without teeth; ridge between choanae, with an angle of 45° relative to body axis, less close to choanae than from each other, as long as distance between them (11) Tongue small, spatulate, emarginate; median lingual process absent. Tooth-like procession on maxilla absent. (12) Suprartymenane fold absent.

Eurelmbs. (13) Arm short, fore-arm (FLL 12.0 mm), shorter than hund (HAL 14.4 mm), enlarged. (14) Fungers I and II short, thus: fingers III and IV long, thin (TFL 8.03 mm) (15) Relative length, shortest to longest. II < I < VI < III. (16) Tips of fingers I to IV pointed, enlarged, with latero-ventral grooves, scarcely wide (fd 11.40 mm, fw I 1.20 mm; fd 21.40 mm, fw 20.93 mm, fw 3.093 mm, fd 41.44 mm, fw 41.05 mm) (17) Funger II with dermal fringe, webbing absent. (18) Subarticular tubercles distinct, rounded, single, all present. (19) Prepollex oval distinct, two, oval, flat palmar tubercles, supernumerary tubercles on base of fingers I to IV, distinct

rather wide (tdl 1.40 mm, twl 0.78 mm; td2 1.79 mm, tw2 0.85 mm, td3 1.98 mm, tw3 0.85 mm; td4 1.186 mm, tw4 0.85 mm; td5 1.19 mm, tw5 0.78 mm) (24) Webbing complete: 10 01110 01V0 0V(WTF 9.9 mm; WFF 10.5 mm; WI 9.4 mm; WI 9.0 mm; WTF 18 2 mm; MTFF 20 4 mm; FTFT 8 0 mm, FTFT 8.8 mm) (25) Dermal ridge along toe V present, from tip of toe to half metatarsus, poorly developed. (26) Subarticular tubercles prominent, oval, simple, all present. (27) Inner metatarsal tubercle short, slightly prominent, ts length (IMT 1.51 mm) 2.6 times in length of toe 1 (ITL 3.99 mm). (28) Tarsal fold absent. (29) Outer metatarsal tubercle understand two thereigh and tarsal tubercle absent.

Skm. (30) Dorsal and lateral parts of head and body snout, between eyes and side of head granular; back shagreened; flank with glandular warts and skin extended forming lateral flaps. (31) Cephalic ridges absent (32) Dorsolateral folds prominent, rather wide, from eye to veni: "Fejervaryan" line absent (Dursois & Ohler, 2000); lateral line system absent (33) Dorsal parts of limbs shagreened. (34) Ventral parts of head, body and limbs: throat with indistinct glandular warts; thest and upper belly smooth; posterior part of belly with indistinct glandular warts; thigh with treefrog belly skin. (35) Macroglands rictal gland and oval humeral eland dorsal to insertion of arm.

Coloration in alcohol (36) Dorsal and lateral parts of head and body, dorsal parts of head and body dark brown, flank blackish brown; loreal region, tympanic region and tympanium dark brown, upper lip dark brown with small white spots; latero-dorsal folds dark brown, (37) Dorsal parts of limbs: dark brown with narrow blackish brown bands, postenor part of thigh dark brown with brown and black spots and a blackish brown zone near vent. (38) Ventral parts of head, body and limbs: throat, its margin and chest light brown, belly yellowish brown, thigh yellowish brown with dark brown marbelling; webbing dark brown with light marbellings.

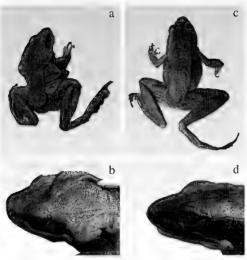
Male secondary sexual characters - (39) Nuptial pad on prepollex and finger I, with small numerous, light vellow spines, forming unique oval patch. (40) Vocal sacs absent

Comment. CHANDA (1994) gave description and drawing of Pterorana khane but did not indicate if it is the holotype. He stated that the two type specimens are females, but they are without doubt adult males.

DESCRIPTION OF ADULT MALES (fig. 2a-b)

For this study thirteen adult males were measured and scored for characters. Measurements are given in table 1. Here we indicate morphological characters different from those of the male holotype.

Head Moderate, wider than long in 6 of 13 individuals, longer than wide in 7 of them (HW 16 0-20 9 mm, HL 16.8-21.9 mm). Canthus rostralis sharp. Interorbital space (IUE 4.15 5 mm) amiller than upper cyclid (LEW 5-0-5.32 mm) in 4 of 13 miles, but larger than upper cyclid in 9 of them. Tongue large, highly notched. Supra-tympanic fold prominent, from anterior part of tympanium to anterior part of shoulder, continuous with lateral skin fold.



I 1g 2. – Rana khare (Kıyasetuo & Khare, 1986). (a) Dorsolateral view and (b) lateral view of head of an adult male KSC 107 (SVL 48 9 mm) from Jokhoma river (c) Dorsolateral view and (d) lateral view of head of a female KSC 117 (SVL 53 mm), some locality

Forchinbs. Relative length of fingers, 11<1V<1<111 Tips of fingers rounded with lateroventral grooves. Subarticular tubercles prominent

Handlands—Shank (TL 26.2-32.4 mm) shorter than thigh (FL 26.3-32.5 mm) and foot (FOL 27.8-33.9 mm) in all specimens. Relative length of toes: Tell+CIII+V=IV Tip of toes rounded with lateroventral grooves. Dermal fringe along toe V absent. Subarticular tubercles prominent, rounded.

Table 1 Measurements of adult males and adult females (in millimeters). Mean values and standard deviation are given in upper line, minimum and maximum values in lower line. Measurements of males and females are statistically compared using Mann Whitney U test Significance levels: ${}^{*}P < 0.05$, ${}^{*}*P < 0.01$; ${}^{**}P > 0.01$

| Measurement | Males n = 13 | Females | U test |
|-------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| _ | | | |
| SVL | 52 2 ± 4 72 | 58 3 ± 5 18 | U = 19 5 |
| 4.5 | (45 4-60 5) | (51 6-65.2) | P = 0 037 * |
| HW | 19.2 ± 1.70 | 18.9 ± 1 75 | U - 42 0 |
| *** | (16.0-20 9) | (16.05-21.0) | P = 0.817 |
| HL. | 19.2 ± 1.83 | 20 8 ± 1.56 | € = 21 0 |
| | (16.8-21.9) | (18.4-22.7) | P = 0 056 |
| MN | 159±1.61 | 17 2 ± 1 56 | L = 26 0 |
| | (12 8-18 6) | (15 0-19 0) | P = 0 135 |
| MFE | 11.3 ± 1.11 | 12.8 ± 1.25 | L = 18 0 |
| | (9.8-13.4) | (11 1-14 6) | P - 0 030 * |
| MBE | 5 79 ± 0.36 | 7.01 ± 0.91 | L = 50 P = 0.000 *** |
| | (5.4-6 8) | (5 95-8.05) | |
| IFE | 7.28 ± 1.40 | 7.6 ± 0.79 | L = 34 5 P = 0.393 |
| | (5 9-9 45) | (6.3-8.8) | |
| IBÉ | 10.4 ± 1 06 | 10.3 ± 0.86 | ξ 35 O |
| | (8 45-11 6) | (95-118) | P = 0 438 |
| [N | 6.09 ± 1.55 | 5 89 ± 0 75 | U 430 |
| | (4 45-10 7) | (4.8-6.8) | P - 0 877 |
| EN | 4.41 ± 0.73 | 4 77 ± 0.65 | l' 33 0 |
| | (3.4-61) | (4 0-5 85) | P = () 351 |
| EL | 5.84 ± 0.56 | 6,28 ± 0.67 | U = 25 5 |
| | (4.8-7.05) | (5.4-71) | P=0115 |
| SL | 8 34 ± 0 87 | 9 06 ± 1 10 | U 280 |
| | (7,05-10.2) | (7 55-10 6) | P = 0.183 |
| NS I | 4 14 ± 0.65 | 4.35 ± 0.49 | C = 39 5 |
| | (3.05-49) | (3 7-5 1) | P = 0.643 |
| TYD | 298 ± 0.28 | 3.46 ± 0.70 | € 26.0 |
| | (2.5-3.6) 1.92 ± 0.40 | (2.5-4.4) | P 0.135 |
| TYE | | 2 27 ± 0.43 | U = 22 5 |
| | (1,45-29) 4.87 ± 0.44 | (1.8-2.8) 5.07 ± 0.73 | P = 0.067 |
| IUE | 4.87 ± 0.44 (4.1-5.5) | | U=390 |
| | 5 14 ± 0.12 | (4.1-5.95) 5.38 ± 0.22 | P = 0.643 |
| UEW | (5.0-5.32) | 15 12-5 6) | D = 19.0 P = 0.320 |
| | (3.0-3.32) (2.5 ± 1.58 | 12.8 ± 1.29 | U = 44 0 |
| FLL | (935-143) | (11.5-14.2) | P = 0.938 |
| | (733-143) 12.7 ± 480 | 14.5 ± 1.27 | U = 16.0 |
| HAL, | (9.7-15.6) | (12.5-16.2) | P = 0 019 * |
| | 8.00 ± 0.59 | 8.4±0.71 | U = 29 5 |
| TFL | (7.25-9.15) | (7.5-9.4) | P=0211 |
| | 29.0 ± 2.00 | 33 2 ± 2 51 | U=65 |
| TL | (26 2-32 4) | (30 4-36 5) | P = 0.001 *** |
| | 30.9 ± 85 | 31 6 ± 1 92 | U = 36.5 |
| FOL | (27 8-33 9) | (29 3-34 5) | D = 36 5 P = 0.485 |
| | 18.0 ± 1.39 | 18 6 ± 1 83 | U=36.5 |
| FTL | (16.2-20.3) | (16 2-21 3) | D = 36.5 P = 0.485 |
| | 2.30 ± 0.29 | 2.4 ± 0.28 | U = 36.5 |
| IMT | (19-276) | (2,1-2.8) | U = 36 5 P = 0 485 |
| | 51 ± 0.45 | 7.49 ± 1.50 | t = 5.0 |
| ITL | (43.60) | (51-90) | P = 0.000 *** |
| | 29.8 ± 2.075 | 31.0 ± 1.98 | l/= 29 ft |
| FL | (26.3-32.5) | (28 05-33 2) | P = 02.1 |

Skin Dorsal and lateral parts of head granular Back and upper part of flank granular with loose skin. Lower part of flank glandular with excessively developed skin forming laterally extended folded appendices Dorsolateral folds present, prominent and narrow. Skin on dorsal forelimb granular and that of thigh granular with excessive foldings. Dorsal skin of leg granular, dorsal part of tarsus smooth. Throat and chest smooth, belly smooth with foldings. Ventral part of thigh with membranous vascularised foldings.

Coloration in life Dorsal and lateral parts of head and body slate colored. Loreal region dark grey, tympanum and tympanic region dark brown. Upper lip light grey Lower surface of limb and body creamy white. Webbing dark brown. Extended flaps of skin slate colored without any markings.

Secondary sexual characters – Nuptial spines granular, transparent on prepollex and finger I, forming unique pad. Vocal sacs absent. Forearm enlarged. Humeral gland on upper arm, oval, twice as long (HGL 6.5 mm) as large. Expanded membranous fold from base of humerus to grom and from vent to thigh (fig. 1a).

DESCRIPTION OF ADULT FEMALES (fig. 2c-d)

As females never have been mentioned or described, we give here a detailed description of external morphology. This description is based on seven adult females collected in amplexus in Japu stream, Jokhoma river, Rokhroma stream and Tsureng stream. Measurements are given in table 1.

Head and body — Moderate-sized frogs (SVL 51.6-65.2 mm), body elongated. Head moderate, longer (HL 18 4-22.7 mm) than wide (HW 161.-21.0 mm) and flat above. Snout oval, protruding and longer (SL 7.55-10.6 mm) than borizontal diumeter of eye (EL 5.4-7.1 mm). Canthus rostralis sharp, loreal region concave. Interorbital space flat (IUE 4.1-5.95 mm), which about equal to upper eyelid (UEW 5.12-5.6 mm) and internarial distance (IN 4 8-6 8 mm). Distance between front of eyes (IFE 6 3-8.8 mm) smaller than distance between back of eyes (IBE 9.5-11 8 mm). Nostriis round, nostriis as close to tip of snout (NS 3.7-5.1 mm) as to eye (EN 4.0-5.85 mm). Pupil rounded. Tyngnarum (TYD 2-5-4 mm) rounded. Pinneal occllus absent. Vomerine ridge present, vomerine teeth small in oblique series. Tongue large, deeply notched. Tooth-like projections on mandibles absent Supratympanic fold prominent, from posterior region of eye to anterior part of shoulder.

Forelumbs Forearm (FLL 11.5-14.2 mm) shorter than hand (HAL 12.5-16.2 mm), not enlarged, Relative length of fingers. ILFLV=L-III, Tips of fingers rounded with latero-ventral grooves; finger II with dermal fringe on inner side, webbing absent Subarticular tubercles prominent and rounded Prepolles oval, distinct, two oval palmar tubercles.

Hindlimbs Shank five times longer (TL 30.4-36.5 mm) than wide, thigh (FL 28.1-33.2 mm) shorter than foot (FOL 29.3.34.5 mm), fourth toe length (FTL 16.2-21.3 mm) longer than third of distance from base of inner metalarsal tubercle to tip of toe IV (TFOL 43.5.5.1.0 mm). Relative length of toes 1<11<111<V<IV. Tip of toes rounded, with latero-ventral grooves. Webbing present, complete. Dermal fringe along toe V absent. Subarticular tubercles prominent, rounded. Inner metalarsal tubercles distinct, o'al. Tarsal fold absent Outer.

metatarsal tubercle smaller than inner metatarsal tubercle but distinct; supernumerary tubercles and tarsal tubercles absent

Skin Snout smooth, granular between eyes: side of head smooth. Posterior part of back and upper and lower part of flank granular. Dorsolateral fold prominent and narrow. No lateral line or "Fejervaryan" line. Dorsal parts of forelimb, thigh, leg and tarsus smooth Ventral parts of throat, chest, belly and thigh smooth

Coloration in life - Dorsal surface of body slate to dark brown. Ventral part of body creamy white Posterior part of thigh with dark networking

Occytes - Large (1.8 mm diameter), animal pole pigmented light brown and vegetal pole whitish, distinctly visible through skin.

COMPARISON OF SEVES

Table I provides statistical comparison of measurements between series of adults of both sexes Females have a more clongated general body shape than males. In all females, head is longer than wide, but there is no significant difference in head width between the two sexes. The head of females is significantly longer than that of males. Males have enlarged forearms. From the measurements the males are significantly smaller than females, but females have longer totha and longer inner toe. Females also have significantly more distant eyes as measured by MFE and MBE.

These differences are rather meager compared to the morphological differentiation due to the skin flaps on lateral body and hind legs. The supratympanic folds are embedded into the lateral skin extensions in males, but form a distinct structure in females. Males have more granular skin in particular on the snout and side of the head and on the legs. Granular skin on ventral thigh is only present in males. Coloration of back and vent is quite similar in both sexes that females can be somehow more brownish.

In males, a distinct gland is present dorsally to arm insertion. There is no such gland in females. Homology to the glands present in males of other raining groups remains to be studied. In Petroinum, position of the gland is shifterent from Sithuman, where the gland is shighly ventral relative to insertion of upper arm, but also from Nidman, where the gland is on flank posterior to arm usertion. The gland in Pieroinum might be homologous to posterior portion of ricial gland, but enlarged.

SPAWNING BEHAVIOUR

This aquatic frog prefers swift flowing water bodies with rocky bottom and boulders or pebbles. Sometimes specimens are found in small groups of 4-5 whenever a pool is present in the swift stream.

Breeding season to between October and November, Males then emit a weak call. Each female lays eggs in shallow water (60-120 mm depth) with its body towards the periphery to avoid the main water current. The jelly mass contains 700-900 eggs. The clutches are attached to dead leaves, twigs or grass. The male remains near the breeding site in shallow water under the debris throughout the breeding season whereas the female leaves the place soon after laying the eggs. Parental care by the male was not observed. The extended flaps of skin of the male show high vascularisation that might help in respiration during the period the males remain in the breeding site in water.

Eggs were obtained from parents taken from the field and reared in laboratory. Each container held 15 larvae which were fed with detritus and algae. Table 2 summarizes temporal succession of development. Under laboratory condition (12-21°C water temperature), embryonic development from egg laying to hatching of larvae takes about five days. At this temperature, completion of larval cycle requires 70 days.

DESCRIPTION OF TADPOLES (fig. 3-4)

Head and body – Head and body oval (fig. 3a-b). Snout slightly rounded. Total length 25-35 mm. Nostriis rounded and open antero-dorsally. Eyes in dorsolateral position. Spiracle single and sinistral. Spiracle opening round and constructed, directed dorso-posteriorly. Vent medial. Four coils of intestine visible through skin.

Oral disc (fig. 3c) in subterminal position, emarginate, its width 2.0-2 3 mm. A single row of marginal papillae with a nostral gap of 0.7-0 mm. Upper jaw sheath entirely keratimized with lateral inflexions, serrated along entire margin, wider than lower jaw sheath, lower jaw sheath wider than deep and serrated along margin; serrations longer than wide. Figure 3d shows individual keratedoont 1 wo rows of keratedonts on upper labium, second row interrupted by a gap of 0.4 mm and three rows of keratedonts of equal length on lower labium, incern own interrupted by a very narrow gap. KFF: 1:1-1/1-12.

Mouthparts. - See table 3.

Buccal floor (fig. 4a) Buccal floor diamond-shaped, larger than long Prelingual arena trapezoid, infralabaal papillae not visible. Tongue anlage square, bearing four lingual papillae of similar size aligned on a transverse row. Buccal floor arena non-existent, no buccal floor arena papillae present, interior smooth. Buccal pockets placed very high in the buccal floor, straight and narrow, oriented almost transversully; much closer to tongue anlage than to the medial end of the ventral velum (anterior part of the left buccal pocket at the level of the tongue anlage, may be an artefact; prepocket papillae absent Ventral velum continuous, with spicular support, its margin slipilly wavy with 14 projections, one above filter plate one, two above filter plate two and height close from each other in the medial part; medial notch not evident. glotts not visible. Branchial buskets almost straight, under than long, three gill chamber on each side; filter ruffles with tertary folds.

Buccal mod (fig. 4b) Prenamal arena large and oval; prenamal rage composed of several small elements arranged in acc of a circle; few pust-alset slapersed within the prenamal nerna Choannae slightly oblique, oriented slightly posteromedially. Prenamal papillae slim and slightly pustulose, rising from the external half of the anterior namal wall, directed anteriorly, namal valve relatively high and smooth. Two pairs of postnamal papillae, the medial one large and pustulose, the lateral one very close to the median pair, much smaller and pointed. Medial ridge wider than high, in crescent with its free cide gasged. Lateral ridge appliale far on the

Table 2. Temporal succession of larval developmental stages in Rana khare under laboratory conditions. Time measured from moment of egg laving is given in hours.

| Stage | Time of completion |
|---|--------------------|
| Late blastula stage (stage 9) | 12-13 h |
| Small yolk plug stage (stage 12) | 29-31 h |
| Closing of neural fold (stage 15) | 41-43 h |
| Muscular response stage (stage 18) | 63-65 h |
| Hatching (stage 21) | 112-115 h |
| Opercular fold (stages 24-25) | 160-168 h |
| Hindlimb bud (stages 26-30) | 380-390 h |
| Margin of 5th toe directed towards prehallux (stage 38) | 1180-1200 h |
| Forelimbs emerged (stage 42) | 1490-1520 h |
| Metamorphosis (stages 43-46) | 1600-1680 h |

Table 3 - Measurements (in millimeters) of a sample of 22 tadpoles (Gosner's stage 38)

| Measurements | Range | Mean ± standard deviation |
|-------------------------|---------|---------------------------|
| Total length | 25-35 | 31 ± 3 08 |
| Body length | 7-15 | 11 ± 2 25 |
| Inter-narial distance | 1-3 | 2 ± 0.58 |
| Inter-ocular distance | 1-4 | 2 5 ± 0 83 |
| Snout to spiracle | 5-10 | 7.5 ± 1 33 |
| Snout to nare | 1-3 | 2 ± 0 54 |
| Snout to eye | 2-6 | 4 ± 1 11 |
| Tail length | 17-23 | 20 ± 1.65 |
| Tail height | 2-8 | 5 ± 1 57 |
| Diameter of tail muscle | 2-4 | 3 ± 0 54 |
| Head width | 2.6 | 4 ± 1 09 |
| Head height | 2-4 | 3 ± 0 59 |
| Eye diameter | 0.5-1.5 | 1 ± 0 29 |

lateral edges of the buscal roof, small, pustulose at end and oriented transversally. Buscal roof arenal long, occupied by a smooth rectangular prominence, arena delimited by at least three buscal roof papillae (visible on the left side). Glandular zone wide, continues across the buscal roof Margin and posterior part of the dorsal velum pustulose, lateral part of velum curved anteriorly, medial part of the dorsal velum not observed.

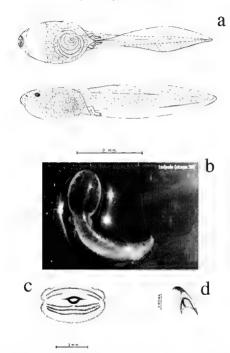
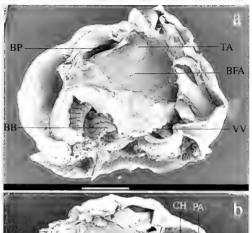


Fig 3 Rana khare (Kiyasetuo & Khare, 1986) (a) Ventral and lateral view of a tadpole at stage 38 (b) Alive tadpole at stage 38 (c) Oral disc of a tadpole at stage 38 (d) Keratodont



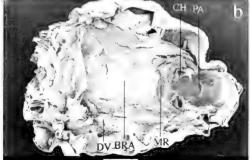


Fig. 4. Rana khare (Kryasetno & Khare 1986) (a) Buccal floor of a tadpole at stage 38. (b) Buccal root of a tadpole at stage 38. Scale bar, I mm. BB, branchial basket, BFA, buccal floor arena, BP, buccal pocket, BFA, buccal floor arena, BP, buccal pocket, BFA, buccal floor arena, BP, buccal arena, I.A. (tongue anlage, VV, ventral velum.

DISCUSSION

MORPHOLOGY

KINASETUO & KHARE (1986) gave a combined description and mean measurements for the holotype and the paratype which are rather different in size (given as 53 mm for the holotype and 62 mm for the paratype). Above we provide a standard description of the holotype including its measurements. The morphological description fits quite well. We add here some details concerning structure of skin, coloration pattern and description of macroglands. Some differences (like relative length of fingers) may be due to observer interpretation for subequal values. Thus details of morphology and measurements of Rana Khare holotype are now more largerly available.

The differences observed between the holotype and the other specimens of the present study are of two origins: different observers and different observation time (e.g., differences in estimation of development of tubercles; skin structures), and different state of conservation of the specimens (e.g., shape of tips of fingers and toes). There is some variation in the studied samples of males and females in structures like head shape or proportions of hind legs. The characters of the holotype fall within the given ranges.

As sexual dimorphism is very conspicuous, the female might have been misidentified in earlier collections. The detailed description of females may help to allocate collection specimens.

Rana khare shows the morphology of a stream frog, having complete webbing and long legs (505-591 per thousands of SVL). It has morphological characters of the genus Rana sensu Dt boots (1992) such as dorsolateral folds and toe pads with latero-ventral grooves. Such a morphology is consistent with the habitat indications given by KIYASFIUO & KHARE (1986).

Tadpoles are characterized by a KRF basic for the epifamily Ranoidia (sensu Dubois, 2005) and a generalized morphology. They do not bear any character related to an adaptation to swift water, such as numerous rows of keratodonts, several rows of marginal papillae. strong caudal muscle or reduced fins (ALTIG & JOHNSTON, 1989). On the contrary, they bear typical characters of still water living tadpoles. This agrees with their microhabitat, as they are found in shallow standing water on the side of the main stream to avoid fast water current, Breeding takes place in late monsoon when the water current is slow. The structures present within the buccopharyngeal cavity are relatively reduced on the buccal floor the infralabial papillae are absent or reduced, the prepocket and the buccal floor papillae are absent; on the buccal roof the postnarial papillae, the lateral ridge papillae, the median ridge and the buccal roof arena papillae are also reduced. The reduction of the structures is generally associated either with a strict suspension-feeding behaviour (like in the Microhylidae, Wassersug, 1980) or with a diet including large pieces of food (as in the genera Hoplobatrachus or Amolops; WASSI RSUG, 1980; GROSJI AN et al., 2004) Torrents, the habitat of Rana khare, are often poor in suspensions or phytoplankton as the current carries the latter rapidly away after formation We could assume that this species feeds on rather large particles in rasping the submerged macrophytes or the epilithic film of protists or algae, but it has no oral features associated to that diet. Nevertheless the well-developed glandular zone of the buccal roof is efficient to collect particles of all sizes and the well-developed filter ruffles must be able to collect fine particles.

Some features of the buccal cavity such as the anterior position of the buccal pockets and the prominence of the buccal roof arena are particular to this species. On the other hand, the prenarial ridge resembles that of the species of the subgenus Rana (Syhirana) (GROSIEAN, 2004).

The data on adult and tadpole morphology lead us to review the systematic position proposed by DuBous (1992) based on adult morphological features. He placed Pterorana as a subgenus of Rana in the Hylanana section. As Pterorana have humeral glands they should be in his Hydrophy lax subsection. It is clearly not a Sylvunana as it lacks the beard-like papillae on lower lip of larvae, which are an apomorphic character for Sylvunan— Hy laxman (GROSIEAN, 2004). It is also particular by the absence of vocal sacs in males which are present in all species of Sylvinana and Humerana. The long legs and complete webbing are shared by stream hiving frogs, such as the species of the Odorrana group, In Sylvunan, legs are shorter in most species and webbing is never complete (OHLER, unpublished data). Pterorana khare shows a unique combination of characters for frogs of the genus Rana so it should be mantained as a subgenus of this genus: For proper allocation, study of more data, in particular molecular analysis will be needed.

Considering the proposals for ranid classification by Frost et al. (2006), it is very difficult to make decisions in their sense as on morphological diagnosis were given for the genera retained. On the presence of the fleshy folds on flanks and thigh, considered as unique in rainids (but see below). Frost et al. (2006) recognized Pterorana as a distinct genus. As long as there are no more data, linked to morphological studies, available on relationships in rainids, we cannot follow these conclusions.

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERS

Females of Rana khare exhibit a quite "normal" rand shape with smooth skin and dorsolateral folds. Sexual characters do not only concern muptial spines but also skin granulation and presence of dermal extensions on flanks and thighs. Like in most rands, females are slightly larger and have longer tibia. Rana khare is one of the species where adult males have no vocal sac, a stuation which is known in other frogs like Polyhedater multic (Smith, 1940) (personal observations). Chaparana hebigu (Gunther, 1860) (Di Bois, 1976) or Lamoneeter bhythin (Boulenger, 1920) (MATSUI, 1995) These species emit calls and are not mute, as specific names like mutus would insinuate.

The presence of enlarged lateral skin in the males may be compared to similar structures observed in other rand frogs of Eurasia. Some of the European brown frogs Ranu temporarua Linnaeus. 1758. Ranu arvalis Nilsson, 1842) develop buggy skin during breeding season. The same can be observed in Ranus sakuatii Matsiu & Matsiu, 1996 from Japan (Mat Do. & MATSI, 1990). Norsit (1925) showed penetration of skin by cutaneus capillaries thus supporting respiratory function for such baggy skin. He also studied histology of the harry dermal structures developed by the male of Truchotharulan robinstrus Boulenee; 1990 during the

breeding season, and found support for a similar respiratory function. In this species as in newt species with dermal respiration, reduction of lungs can be observed (NOBLE, 1925)

Both behavior (male Rana khare staying in the mountain streams with oxygenated water for a long period) and morphological analysis (similar parts of skin being modified) give support to the hypothesis that the "wing-like" structures are in fact additional respiratory organs. KIYASCIUO & KHARE (1986) described glidding behavior in this frog. However, in species where lateral skin fringes participate in gliding behavior (e.g., Rhacophoras reimarallii (Schlegel, 1840)], these are not baggy and folded flags but single layered and straight appendages. The true pliding frogs also have complete webbing on hand

In Rana khare, males were observed staying in the breeding site whereas females leave the breeding site soon after egg laying. Vascularised enlargement of skin might help the male in respiration while remaining in water as these hill streams provide highly oxygenated water. However, no parental care has been shown so far.

If the enlarged skin surfaces allow frogs to spent longer periods under water, they might play a role in reproductive behavior. In European brown frogs it is known that male stay longer time in breeding places than females. This presence is not due to parental care. Nevertheless the aggregation of calling males has a consequence, the aggregation of egg clutches, which increases temperature in these clutches and thus influences development of eggs. In Trichohatrachus, the male stays with the clutches (PERRET, 1966) and is supposed to protect them from predators (DULLIMAN & TRUER, 1985). Thus the males stay for long periods under the water and the hairy structures of the skin will allow gas exchange in aquatic habitar

Advantages of staying under water must be different in pond frogs like Rana temporaria and in stream frogs like Rana khare or Tirchobatraclius robustus. In pond frogs like rana bette to difference in temperature of water and air. Rana temporaria is one of the first breeders at the end of winter when temperatures of air often may fall beneath 0°C. Staying in water may avoids temperature stress. But there is no such temperature problem in stream frogs occurring in tropical or subtropical regions. The main problem for these frogs might be the current of the streams. Staying in the profound parts of the water body limits the energy necessary to counterpart the flow as its speed is diminishing when approaching the bottom of stream. Both vascularized dermal appendages for respiration and diminished gas volume in lungs of Trichobarrachise can be adaptations to staying for a long time under water. If frogs choose breeding places or have territorial behavior, it is important for reproductive success to be able to stay in these places. By avoiding to go through regularly strong currents and to be washed away from favorable breeding places, they enhance their fliness. Further studies of internal anatomy and histology are needed confirm our hypothesis on function of skin flaps in Rana khare.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to acknowledge Alain Dubois for its comments at various stages of the maintenantp Studies of the north-east Indian fauna was financed by the PPF"Faune et Flore de l'Asse du Sud-est" of the Muséum National d'Historier Naturelle.

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Notes on the genus Hyperolius (Anura, Hyperoliidae) in central République Démocratique du Congo

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This paper deals with the treefrogs of the genus Hyperolius in central Republique Democratique du Congo, an area delimited by the Congo-Lualaba River, and to the South by 5°S. This is a very poorly explored part of Africa. The study is based on the material in the Royal Museum of Central Africa in Tervuren and on the authors' collections in the area in 1975 and 2005. A number of little-known forms are commented upon: Hyperolius robustus, H. schoutedeni and the juvenile phase of H. phantasticus are illustrated in colour; H. brachiofasciatus is re-described and the difficut H. nasutus group is discussed. An unidentified Hyperolius, probably a new spocies, is briefly described.

INTRODUCTION

The area covered in the present paper is the coregion "Central Congo Basin Moist Forest" (OLSON & DINERSTEIN, 1998) in the République Démocratique du Congo, delimited to the West, North and East by the Congo-Lualaba River. The southern border is arbitrarily set at 5°S. This delimitation includes the tropical moist lowland forest in the ecoregion and furthermore the northern part of the savanna south of the great forest. The exact southern border of the area covered in this paper is of little significance since virtually no herpetological collecting has been undertaken in the southern part of the area. between 4°a and 5°S. Also the remainder of the area is virtually unknown herpetologically. The considerable herpetological efforts in what was then Belgian Congo were concentrated on the three national parks. Albert (Virtunga), Caramba and Upemba, all far from the present area. The only attempt at a comprehensive study of the genus Hyperolius in Republique Democratique du Congo is that of LAURENT (1943).

The present paper is based on the material in the Royal Museum of Central Africa (MRAC) in Tervierin, material including a large undentified collection made by the reverend father Paul Lotons in Boteka in 1985. His collection consists of more than 1500 specimens of the genus H₁ perolux alone. This material is supplemented by collections made by the author near Kinshasa and in and near Salonga National Pare in 1975 during a largely non-herpercloogical tour, and in Kokolopori and Mabali in 2005. A gazetteer of important

SCHIØTZ 41

localities is given in appendix 1. My material is placed in the Zoological Museum in Copenhagen (ZMUC). Below, formulae for the webbing of feet of specimens are expressed according to the method described in Scrinotz (1975) Size of some specimens is given in millimetres, as SVI. (snout-vent length). Samples preserved for DNA analysis were taken from all species collected by the author in 2005. They are stored at the Zoological Museum, Copenhagen.

The purpose of the present paper is not to make a catalogue of the material in the two museums but to study the genus Hyperohus. I have therefore left a large part of the material from Boteka unidentified since I believe that it is not possible to identify all the preserved specimens of the genus Hyperolius unless one is very familiar with the fauna from field experience, especially in a genus where much of pattern and colour vanish after preservation. Our knowledge in this area therefore remains incomplete; especially the sylvicolous fauna is almost unknown. The zoogeographical significance of the Central Congo Basin Moist Forest is further discussed in Science 2 (2007).

TAXONOMY

Hyperolius balfouri (Werner, 1907)

Comments. - Only one specimen (det. R. F. Laurent) is recorded from our area. The specimen has asperities on the back but no pattern or other distinguishing characters.

Material. - Bokuma: MRAC 52446

Hyperolius brachiofasciatus Ahl, 1931

Description. — A rather small H_1 perolius (δ : 22.7-28.0 mm; \mathcal{C} : 24.8-29.0 mm) with a pattern in two distinctly different phases (see below). For some body dimensions see table 1. Webbing moderate, formula. 1(1-19), 24(1-19), 24(5-9), 34(1-19), 34(1-1), 3

Colour after preservation (fig. 11. – Phase J. Dorsum light brown, often with darker spots which in some specumens form an "hour-glass pattern". Dorsal colour sharply delimitated against a darker, urregular lateral band. Canthal area of head also dark making canthus roistrails distinct. Conspicuous dark har between eyes with a broad apex pointing back. Sometimes darker spots in fumbar region. This with a conspicuous pattern with two large spots of the dorsal colour, leaving a dark, oblique band of the lateral colour between them A small white spot present under the eye in most specimens. Venter unprigments.

This phase is termed phase J (terminology after SCHIOTZ, 1975, 1999) which should mean that no females belong to it, however two females of this phase are found in the large material from Boteka.

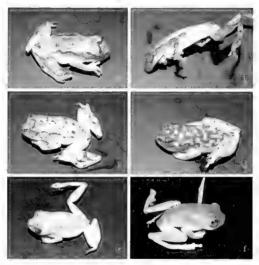


Fig. 1. Hyperolus bracholus catus. (a-b) Boteka, phase J. (a) dorsal view, and (b) lateral view. (c) Boteka, phase F; (d) Boteka, phase F; (f) Kokolopori, phase F.

Phase F. Dorsam dark with light spots sometimes marbled in dark and light. Some specimens are light with fine dark points. No dark lateral band or dark canthus rostralis. No white speck ventrally to the eye. Venter unpigmented. In life femur red (P. Lootens' notes).

The distinctness of my single specimen from Kokolopori was unfortunately first discovered after its preservation so I have no description of the colour in life, except for it being noted as "pink". It is slightly larger (SVL 29.0 mm) than the females from Boteka (maximum 28.2 mm.).

Schiøtz 43

Table 1 Body dimensions of some Congolese Hyperolius Collection references MRAC, Royal Museum of Central Africa, Terviren, ZMLC, Zoological Museum, Copenhagen SVL, snoutivent length, TL, toba length, ED, horizontal eye diameter; EN, distance eye-nare, TUSVL, ratio tiba length snout-vent length Measurements are in tenth of millimetres, the ratio TUSVL is in percent.

| Species | Locality | Collection reference | Sex | SVL | TL | ED | EN | TL/SVL |
|---------------------|------------|----------------------|-----|-----|-----|----|----|--------|
| H brachiofasciatus | Kokolopori | ZMUC R.771206 | 9 | 304 | 170 | 47 | 34 | 56 |
| H brachiofasciatus | Boteka | MRAC | Q. | 251 | 143 | 37 | 24 | 57 |
| H brachiofasciatus | Boteka | MRAC | 8 | 257 | 136 | 34 | 25 | 53 |
| H brachiofusciatus | Boteka | MRAC | o o | 249 | 135 | 34 | 29 | 54 |
| H. brachiofasciatus | Boteka | MRAC | 0 | 255 | 139 | 39 | 30 | 55 |
| H robustus | Monkoto | ZMUC R 079697 | ਰੰ | 307 | 148 | 45 | 39 | 48 |
| H. robustus | Kokolopori | 2MUC R.771176 | Q. | 335 | 165 | 50 | 39 | 49 |
| H robustus | Kokolopori | ZMUC R.771175 | 8 | 337 | 179 | 54 | 39 | 53 |
| H. robustus | Kokolopora | ZMUC R.771177 | 3 | 295 | 163 | 46 | 27 | 55 |
| H. robustus | Kokolopori | ZMUC R.771174 | 3 | 316 | 165 | 55 | 39 | 52 |
| H. schoutedens | Garamba | MRAC | Q | 225 | 105 | 26 | 19 | 47 |
| H. schoutedens | N'Sele | ZMUC R 079832 | 2 | 252 | 118 | 30 | 28 | 47 |
| H. schoutedeni | N'Sele | ZMUC R.079835 | 18 | 225 | 108 | 37 | 25 | 48 |
| H. schoutedeni | N'Sele | ZMUC R.079834 | 3 | 229 | 105 | 34 | 31 | 46 |
| H. schoutedeni | N'Sele | ZMUC R.079833 | ð | 202 | 93 | 30 | 23 | 46 |
| Hyperolius sp | Mabalı | ZMUC R 771206 | 4 | 407 | 191 | 54 | 34 | 47 |

Comments In the material from Boteka, two very distinct forms were found abundantly.
One of the forms is identical to a single female I found at Kokolopori. In search of a name I came across a small collection (16 specimens) identified as Hyperolius brachiofusciatus.
Ahl, 1931 by R. F. Laurent Eight of these, from Flandria and Eala, representing both patterns, are the same forms as the material from Boteka. The remainder has lost all patterns I follow Laurent in his identification and in regarding the two forms as phases of one species although with some doubt. Arth's (1931) illustration shows a combination of the main characters found in the two phases, mottled back and a bar between the eyes. This combination of the characteristics of the two phases is found only in very few of the specimens I examined.

The slight doubt about the two forms being conspecific is caused by the presence of females in both phases—although only two females phase J were found in the sample from Boteka (phase J is otherwise only shown in the genus by javeniles and males). Doubt is also caused by most of the samples from Boteka containing only one of the forms which could indicate that they are not syntopic—or it could be caused by later separation by the collector.

This species has not been mentioned in the literature since AHL's (1931) description, except mer listings in Front (1985) and Josef (1990), and was therefore, like other nomina dubia, omitted from Scholz (1999). However, in spite of a lost type and slight doubts about the two patterns being conspecific, it would seem prudent to use Ahl's name

Biological notes. The single female taken by me was collected at a farmbush locality (sensu SCHIOTZ, 1975) with H phantasticus and H platyceps. No voice was heard

Distribution - Known from southern Central African Republic (type locality) to the central Congolian forest. All localities in MRCA are from the latter area,

Material Eala, MRAC 40282, 9775, 51089-91 (5 specimens); Flandrin MRAC 3748, 52099, 12368 (3 specimens); Boteka: MRAC B 85052 0804-0814, 0862-0967, 0971-1024, 1026-1125, 1433-1490, 1790, 1898-1976, 2094-2102 (420 specimens); Kokolopori: ZMUC R,771206 (1 °). Also material, determined by Laurent, considered by me unidentifiable, from Boende and Bokuma

Hyperolius cinnamomeoventris Bocage, 1866

Voice. - The voice of the N'Sele sample was noted as being a fast series of clicks.

Colour in Infe. – Males from N'Sele, dorsum brown with small black specks; light brown dorsolateral lines; venter yellowish white; throat yellow. Females from N'Sele dorsum a dense green delimited from the whitish venter by an irregular dark lateral line. The single female from Mabali agrees in coloration with the sample from N'Sele. This is in agreement with the colour pattern from elsewhere.

Comments.—The specimens from N'Sele are small (δ 17-18 5 mm; \hat{V} 20.5-24.5 mm). Males from this sample have the typical male pattern for the species which shows sexual dimorphism A large series from Boteka (39 specimens) is remarkable since all males except two have the female pattern (fig. 2a), a feature not reported for this species from elsewhere

There is a suspicion that several cryptic species may hide under the name H cumumomeoventris (see LÖTTERS et al., 2004).

Material. – Boteka. MRAC 85052.1890-1897, 2103-2126, 2169-2175 (39 specimens); N'Sele ZMUC R.771183-98 (11 δ, 5 ♀); Mabali ZMUC R.771207 (1 ♀).

Hyperolius ghesquieri Laurent, 1943

Comment. A large Hyperolars (SVL 37 mm) with a characteristic pattern (figures: LAURENT, 1943, SCHIØTZ, 1999). Only the female holotype is known.

Material - Befale: MRAC 1159 (1 2)

Hyperolius kuligae Mertens, 1940

Comments Hiperialus kuligue is well documented from Cameroun (e.g., Amir. 1, 1978) and was furthermore recorded from Uganda with some reservation (SCHIOTZ, 1999) and possibly as part of the material identified as Hyperialus Jaugi from casteriumos République Democratique du Congo (LALRINT, 1972). One female (SVL 20.3 mm j) from Boteka seems to belong to this species with its characteristic broad and flat body and head, and a pattern

SCHIOTZ 4

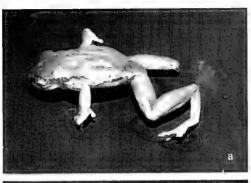




Fig. 2 (a) Hyperotus comunion coventro, Boteka, d with a pattern (b) Hyperotus kuligae Boteka, 5

typical for the species (fig 2b) The record should however be regarded with reservation; as one specimen of a species so similar to other Hyperolius is not sufficient to establish the presence of this form in the area.

Material. - Boteka: (MRAC B.85052.1793 (1 ♀).

Hyperolius nasutus group

Comments There seems to be two distinct species in the area covered by this paper. One of the forms is represented by a single sample (eight specimens) in P Lootens' material from Boteka (fig 3a). These specimens are small (6 19.0-19.7 mm; 9 17.5 mm) and with rounded snout, dorsum uniform light or with tiny dark chromatophores. A fine dark canthal line is present Lootens' notes of colours in life indicate: "In life males light green, unstriped, yellow throat". This description indicates that the single female had light dorsolateral stripes. The sample was collected together with a series of "Afrixahas" "Juhovittatus" in "pincapple and anuaecous herbs". This sample is tentatively referred to H adversus Peters, 1871 (see below).

Other samples from our area had been identified by R. F. Laurent as Hyperolus nuscus. Laurent, 1943 (or H nautus nussicus). The type material from north-eastern Congo has a very pointed, shark-like snout, quite different from the rounded snout of the Boteka material (fig. 3b). The four half-grown paratypes of H naucur from the same locality have retained conspicuous white dorsolateral lines after preservation, nusual for the nassurs group since the light stripes normally tend to disappear when the green ground colour has vanished after preservation. The male holotype (SVL 2.34 mm) of H nussuus is unstriped

A single female in MRAC from Mayombe, i.e., from outside the area covered by this paper, was identified by R. F. Laurent as *H. adspersus* (SVL 23.0 mm). It is unstriped and has a snoot shape similar to the sample from Boteka.

Considering the unsettled taxonomy in this group, no names are proposed for the material in MR AC H adispersis seems to be a likely name for the small material from Boteka, based on morphology and habitat (see comments below), whereas H nasicus for the time being should be regarded as a separate species with unknown distribution. The material of H masicus, with the sharp, protrouding snout and the ample pigmentation which is leaving the dorsolateral stripes conspicuous after preservation, is quite similar to H_1 perolus benguellensis (Bocage, 1893) sensu Boynton & Brookoltz (1987).

Taxonomy – AMIET (2005), in a study of the complex occurring in Cameroun, using voice, morphology and habitat preference, reached the conclusion that there are two species in that country. Amiet chose the name H. ngbetness's Schiotz 1963 for the northern, savanicolous form, to indicate it being conspecific with material from Nigeria to central Côte d'Ivoire but he did not reject it being conspecific with one of the forms from the savanna further east and south in Africa. The other Cameronese species is parasylvicolous, found in clearings in the forest ("Farmbush") in southern Camerone and is given the name. H. adspersus Peters 1877 (type locality Cabinda, Angola) AMIET's (2005) meticulous study revealed subtle differences in morphology between the two species in addition to significant differences in habitat preference and voice. H. adspersus, the only parasylvicolous species in the complex. is, according to Amiet. further distributed in coastal Gabbon, south-western Refoulbling distributed in coastal Gab

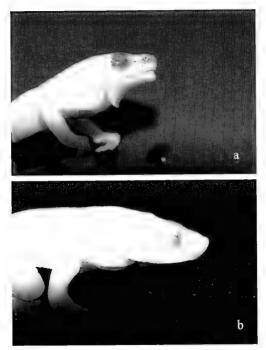


Fig. 3. (a) Hiperolius aff. nasatus, Boteka. (b) Hiperolius nasusus, holotype

Congo (LARGEN & DOWSETT-LEMAIRE, 1991, as H. aff. nasutus), lower République Démocratique du Congo and Cabinda (type locality), and probably coastal Angola down to 12°S.

A recent paper by CHANNING et al. (2002) has sent the H nasutus group into a nomenclatural turmoil. According to them the parasylvicolous H. adspersus sensu Amiet (as well as the distinct, remote savanicolous West African H. Immotre) should be termed H. nasutus, and the well-known and widespread savanna form in most of tropical Africa, hitherto called H. nasutus, be termed H. acuticeps Ahl 1931. These nomenclatural changes are further discussed in Schioriz (2006)

Material. Boteka: MRAC B.85030 1091-1098 (7 ♂, 1º); Mayombe: MRAC (1 º, H. adspersus det. Laurent), Kasiki (Marungu, north-eastern Congo): MRAC (types of H nosscus Laurent, 1943).

Hyperolius ocellatus Günther, 1859

Colour in life of material from Kokolopori and Mabali. Phase J (all males in most populations). Green with a silvery white triangle on the snout and broad white dorsolateral lines. The light triangle on the head is enclosed by a brown edge Venter yellow surrounded by white and blue (fig. 4). Throat yellow

Phase F. Dense silvery grey with small black points. Venter bright yellow, edge of lower jaw white with black spots (fig. 4)

Conuments. Several subspecies have been described, but the variation within the species is not well understood. Only few specumens were heard in small forest swamps, localities for a swlveolous or parasylvicolous fauna.

Material Kokolopori: ZMUC R.771200-04 (4 δ, 1 ೪); Mabali: ZMUC R.771213 (1 δ); Mundjuku. ZMUC R.771139-48 (10 δ); Befale. MRAC (2 specimens); Bokala: MRAC (1 ೪)

Hyperolius parallelus parallelus Gunther, 1859

Comments. Only two specimens of the very conspicuous and normally very abundant H writhflasus superspecies are found in the collections of MRAC from the large area south of the forest down to 5°S, between the main distributions of the form parallelia near the Atlantic coast and of argentoritis in easternmost Congo, a stretch of more than 1000 km. This is an indication of how incomplete our collections from this area are The westernmost of these two specimens (22°27°E, 03°28°S) is in MRAC labelled parallelias, the easternmost, only 150 km away (23°34°E, 02°23°S), argentoritis. They are, however, both typical parallelias with lateral lines parallel to the mid-dorsal line, not oblique as in argentoritis. The border or gradual transition between these very similar forms is therefore further east than assumed by SCHIOTZ (1999): fig. 463°C.

The bewildering Hyperolius viridiflavus superspecies has been discussed in several papers (Schiøtz, 1971, 1999, Laurent 1976, 1983; Wieczorek et al., 2001) Schiøtz (1971) argued

SCHIØTZ 49



Fig. 4 Hyperolius ocellatus, Kokolopori, ventral view of female (left) and male (right)

that the term subspecies for the many, often dramatically distinct forms are different from the subspecies concept commonly used. The species structure is also disputed. One school, especially with a South African perspective, regards all the forms in southern Africa as belonging to H maninoratios, and the forms in northern and western Africa as subspecies of H. viridiffunct. Science; 1971) argued, based on a few examples of syntopy and a great similarity in pattern between some outh-western forms, for two widespread species, H viridifuncts and H parallelis. LARI BY IT [1976] in reality accepted this view but named the south-western form H marginatus based on his inclusion in the species parallelis of a form, marginatus, with nomenclatural priority but doubful affinity to either of the species (see further in Scientry, 1971), until he, as an appendix to another paper on the subject LLOBB BY, 1983), reached the conclusion that the superspecies with our present knowledge is best regarded as monospecific, with the species name Hyperolius virishiflarus.

Wite zours, et al. (2001) studied the mtDNA in a number of forms and obtained a better understanding of the structure of the group. Concluding from an investigation of 24 forms, less than half of the "recognized subspecies", they separated these into ten full species. One of these full species is II parallelin. In their cladogram, this species is widely separated from what I would assume to be its closest relative, angeotoxitis. The difference in mtDNA which the authors accept as sufficient for separation between species (one fixed character per clade) is small compared to species differences in other groups and several of their species show full reproductive compatibility and/or gradual transition in pattern. One unfortunate result of





Fig. 5.— Hyperolaus phantusticus (a) Kokolopori, phase J. (b) Mabali, phase J. with canthal and dorsolateral stripe.

proposing formal nomenclatural changes based on a study of less than half of the members of the group is that, if this nomenclature is adopted, it leaves the unstudied forms in a nomenclatural vacuum.

SCHIØTZ 51



Fig. 6. Hyperolius phantasticus, Kokolopori, ventral view of males, phases J (left) and F (right)

The species name parallelus for the present material was used both by SCHIOTZ (1971) and WIECZOREK et al. (2001), although with different contents.

Material, - Kinshasa Botanical Garden. ZMUC R771182 (1 9); near Mbandaka (18°14'E, 00°20'S): MRAC (1 specimen); 22°24'E, 03°28'S: MRAC (1 specimen); 23°34'E, 02°23'S. MRAC (1 9); several specimens from lower Congo, outside our area.

Hyperolius phantasticus (Boulenger), 1899

Colour in life. - The species occurs in two very different phases (fig. 5-6).

Phase J. Head and body a light, transparent green, unspotted or with tmy dark sports A light canthal stripe present in most specimens, in some individuals continuing behind the eye as a lateral stripe halfway down the body. Ventral side of body green, yellow and blue, often so that the abdomen is yellow, surrounded by green and with blue patches on the limbs. Throat blue or yellow. When calling at night the inflated throat is green to blue

Phase F. Dorsal surfaces reddish to beige, sometimes with small yellow spots. Ventral sides of body and limbs wholly or partly black to dark violet. Throat bright orange or dark as venter, in some specimens with a blood-red small gular disc.

A few specimens show what seems to be a transition, dorsal surfaces as phase F, venter as phase J. After preservation all the colours of phase J and the dorsal colours of phase F have



Fig. 7.— Hyperolius platiceps, Kokolopori (a) morph A, dorsal view, (b) same specimen, leteral view

SCHIØTZ 53



Fig. 8. - Hyperobus platycens, Kokolopori, morph D

faded to a uniform yellowish. The canthal stripe is visible as a dark line in most specimens of phase J. Venter of phase F is dark. A colour illustration of phase J has apparently not been published previously. Several of the phase J specimens in MRAC are labelled H. houlengeri Laurent 1943.

Comments. H1 perolius phantasticus was the dominant and the most conspicuous H1 perolius species in Kokolopori and Mabali. It is therefore sit ange how rate it is in the large collections from Boteka, I2 specimens out of a total of about 1500 Hyperolius.

Hyperoluse phantastuse phase 1 is after preservation very similar to phase 1 of the more western H guitulatus Gunther 1859 which overlaps in distribution with H phantastrus in coastal Cameroum to south-western Gabon. A difference between the two species is that H guitulatus has a well developed gular disc. H phantastrus has none or a small disc with much dilatable skin.

Biological notes. This species was collected at farmbush localities together with H. plat (eps. and also in small, swannia like swamps in the forest near the river (Esobe in French) at Mabalii, where one would expect a savanna fauna.

Material Ommanundu, Lodja, MRAC (38 specimens), Leopoldville, Flandria, Kunungu, Edal, Bokoro MRAC, Ibembo MRAC 52320 (1 specimen); Boteka: MRAC B 88952 0676-0677, 0697, 1778 (12 specimens); Kokolopori ZMUC R 771214-26 (12 3,



Fig 9 Hyperolius rohustus, Kokolopoti, č

1 $\,^\circ$); Mabah: ZMUC R.771227-36 (8 $\,^\circ$, 2 $\,^\circ$); Monkoto: ZMUC R.771134-38 (3 $\,^\circ$, 2 $\,^\circ$); heard 10 km north of Watsi Kengo.

Hyperolius platyceps (Boulenger, 1900)

Colour nt/fe. The sample from Kokolopor falls into four apparently distinct morphs where the two dorsal patterns (hour-glass or dorsolateral lines), are combined freely with the dark or light venter. A (dark-bellied with hourglass pattern on back; 9 δ , 1 \circ); B (dark-bellied with light dorsolateral lines; 2 δ); C (light-bellied with hour-glass pattern; 6 δ); D (light-bellied with light dorsolateral lines; 7 δ 1.

Morph A Dorsum dark brown with a black hour-glass pattern. Venter black, or black with small white spots, and with orange spots on the hidden parts of the grom Throat black Conspicuous white spots on the otherwise dark sides (fig. 7).

Morph B. Dorsum dark with light brown canthal- and dorsolateral stripes, venter as A

Morph C. Dorsum light brown with darker brown hour-glass pattern. Venter white, throat yellow

Morph D. Dorsum light brown with white canthal- and dorsolateral stripes. Venter white, throat yellow (fig. 8).

SCHIØTZ 55



Fig. 10 - Hyperolius schoutedeni, N'Sele.

A female from Watsi Kengo had dorsum brown with green spots, and light canthal and dorsolateral stripes.

Voice. - A single, coarse click (noted as being similar to H. concolor).

Comments. Hyperolius platy (egp) is a very variable species, both geographically and within populations, therefore much confusion has surrounded this name. Amir (1978) clarified the systematic in Cameroun, also in relation to other species with a similar pattern (H. Kultigue and H. dudnueri). The variation within populations was described by Pirasi (1966). Amir (1978) and LARGIA & Dowest 1-L Manki (1991), arther than the two phases found in most Hyperolius with one phase, J. (Juvernie) consisting of juvernies and some of the adult males, and another, pht. for made consisting of some makes and all females for H platitic per both morphs can be found among both seves. As cleachere the samples from Congo show two main morphs, one with hour-glass pattern (morph MD, after Amir I, 1978), and another with light dorsolateral stripes and no hour-glass pattern (morph MD, in the Kokolopori material, both these morphs, however, occur in a light and dark version, the dark morph with conspicuous white spots on sake of body. Such white spots are not known from Camerom or Internal transition. In the plant had be provided that the plant had been also four collected females (LARGIA) & DOWS IT-LIMBIR. [1991) had a bright seried ofession, an morph not encountered in Cameroun or in Congo

Hyperoius mapor Laurent, 1957 from southern Congo was described as a subspecies of Hyplaticeps and is very similar in pattern and morphology. It differs by the voice being a series





Fig. 11 - Hyperolius sp., Mabali. (a) dorsal view, (b) ventral view

Schiøtz 57

of hard clicks in rapid succession rather than the single click of H playeeps. The recorded calls from Kokolopori are typical for H, playeeps and are identical to calls from Cameroun (SCHIOTZ, 1999).

I found this species abundantly at Kokolopori and at Salonga, but strangely it is almost absent from the collections of MRAC, with only one specimen, from Flandria.

Biological notes. This species was collected in farmbush, most abundantly in roadside ditches near a small river, together with H. phantasticus

Distribution. The present records represent a considerable extension to the East.

Materal, - Flandria MRAC (1 specimen), Kokolopon: ZMUC R.771237-61 (24 & 1 9); Mondjuku: ZMUC R.079699-702 (4 specimens); 10 km north of Watsi Kengu. ZMUC R.079837-39 (3 specimens)

Hyperolius robustus Laurent, 1979

Description — A large Hyperolaus (c 30.2-38.3 mm; 2 33.5-37.1 mm). For body dimensions, see LAURENT'S (1979) detailed description, and table 1 in present paper. Webbing well developed, formula of sample from Kokolopori: [1/4-1, 2(1-1/2), 2(2(1-1/2), 2(2(1-1/2), 2(2(1-1/2), 2(

Colour in life Dorsum red-brown to yellow with diffuse dark spots (fig. 9) Some specimens almost unspotted, some with dominant spots. Ins golden. Venter almost uniform yellowish white, orange on the underside of the hind legs. The large, flat gular disc of males light yellow,

Comments.—LAURENT (1979), in his description and discussion of two new Hyperolius from Lodja (H robustus and H sankuruensis), compared them in a very detailed way with other members of the genus, including species with a very diverging morphology. Strangely he did not compare the two species with each other, although both the descriptions and the disstrations point at very similar frogs. The only difference extracted from the descriptions is that H robustus is slightly smaller and less webbed than sankuruensis and that the male sankuruensis has dark transverse bands on dorsum (not apparent from the illustration). The two H sankuruensis present in Terviren (holotype and allotype) have no pattern left but seem to me to be very similar to H. robustus. The holotype of H robustus is in agreement with my specimens.

Biological notes. – The specimens from Kokolopori were taken in bushes, most of them rather high up (2 to 4 meters), in forest or dense farmbush near small watercourses. No vocal activity was heard at Kokolopori whereas a supposed "initial sound" was heard from a specimen from Monkoto.

Material. Sankuru, MRAC (type material), Kokolopori, ZMUC R 771174-79 (5 & , 1 9), Monkoto: ZMUC R 079697 (1 &).

Hyperolius schoutedeni Laurent, 1943

Description. – Hyperolus schoutedem is a very long-nosed frog with the body proportions of a large Hyperolus nasutus, quite different from H enummomerorentrs, with which is it was compared in INGER's (1968) study from Garamba. The sharp snout and the presence of a mid-dorsal line in many specimens of H schoutedem, and the distinctive female pattern in H enummonteoventris, clearly separate the two species. Some body dimensions are given in table 1. Webbing is reduced, the formula of a sample from N'Sele being: [1-[1-1/2], 2(1]/2-1/3), 2e(1), 3t(2), 3e(1), 4t(1/2-2), 4c(1/2-2), 5(0-1/2). The gullar disc is large and flat.

Many of the frogs in the large material from Garamba (INGER, 1968) are smaller than the sample from N'Sele, and most lack the light mid-dorsal line.

Colour m life of material from N'Sele (fig. 10). – Dorsum brown with lighter dorsolateral stripes. In the field it was noted that only females (3 out of a sample of 6) have a light mid-dorsal line, after preservation this line is visible also on 2 of the 3 males. Throat is white (?) or yellow (3). In some specimens the hidden parts of femur and the upper side of feet are red. Venter is whitish. Females are only slighter larger than males $(3 \ 21 \ 0-23 \ 0 \ mm; ? 23 \ 4-23 \ mm)$

Voice . It was heard at N'Sele It consists in a double click

Biological notes This species was found in a small swamp near Congo River in savanna or very open farmland.

Distribution. - This species is only known from République Democratique du Congo

Material. - Kunungu: MRAC (holotype), Bokoro: MRAC (1 specimen); Leopoldville: MRAC (1 juvenile; undstunct, identification probably correct); N'Sele, ZMUC R.079832-35, 771180-81 (3 & 3 9); Parc National de la Garamba: MRAC.

Hyperolius sp.

Description Female large, SVL 40 nm (see also table 1). Webbing formula, 1(1), 2(1), 2(1), 2(2), 3(3), 3(3), 4(1), 4(1), 4(1), 5(0), No gular fold: A characteristic coloration in life is dorsum dark chocolate brown densely beset with tim, bright green points, not forming any pattern (fig. 11a). After having been kept in a plastic bag for some hours the ground colour had fadded to a light greey, still with the green points visible Ventral parts are uniform orange (fig. 11b). After preservation the dorsal ground colour is dull dark grey with white points

The large size makes it obvious to compare this female with the only other Congolese species with females that size (according to LACRINI, 1979). If availablements Webbing is similar to the female paratype of 11 sankininers, and the pattern after presentation does not show any distinct differences. But identification in this difficult genus cannot be based on size, as several species from western and eastern Africa have a similar size, nor on webbing or on lack of distinct pattern.

SCHIØTZ 59

Comments.— A single specimen of a large, strangely coloured Hyperolius was brought by children in Mabali. I believe it to represent an undescribed species. It is however not advisable to describe a member of the genus Hyperolius based on one specimen, a female lacking the systematically important male characters, and a specimen which has not been studied on its breeding site. Therefore its formal description should await further studies.

Biological notes - The only known specimen was allegedly collected in low herbs along a road in farmbush in former moist forest.

Material. - Mabalı: ZMUC R.771205 (1 ♀).

Hyperolius tuberculatus (Mocquard, 1897)

Comments. - Many records in our area in MRAC (see LAURENT, 1943).

ACKNOWI EDGEMENTS

I am most indebted to the Carbberg Foundation and the Niels Bohr Legat for financially supporting my sist in 2005 to Republique Democratique du Congo and to MRAC in Ferviera and the Niels Bohr Legat for contributing to this publication. My fieldwork in Congo was made possible through the support of the Bonobo Conservation Instate (BCI), both in the preparatory process and as the necessity logistical support during the tour, a tour which was made pleasant and rewarding through the untiring support and entihissism of the director of BCI, Michiele Hurley His local partners also provided help and good company in a country where fieldwork is not easy. I am here expecially indebted to Benevieu Mupends and Jean Marie Benisha, both of BCI, Dr Mwarza Ndunda, Director Feerner of Centre de Recherch en Ecologie Forestière, Mabali and Albert Lokasola, Vie Sauvage in Kokolopori My stay in MRAC in Terviera was made rewarding by the help and assistance of Dr Danny Merte Mogens Andersen, Zoological Mivieum in Copenhagen assisted in many practical ways J. C. Poynton is thinked for constructive critissis of Content and alraguage and A. M. Warfeld for improving the language.

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APPENDIX I

IMPORTANT MRAC LOCALITIES

Befale 00°28'N, 20°58'F Boende 00°14'8, 20°59'E Bokada 03°08'S, 17°94 E Bokuma 00°06 S, 18°41'E Boteaa 00°20 S, 19°07'E Laha: 00°04'N, 18°20'E Flandra 00°20'S, 19°03'E Kumungu 02°06 S, 16°26'E Ommanundu (terr Lodja) 03°21'S, 23°16'E

ZMUC LOCALITIES (COLLECTIONS SCHIBTZ)

Koxolopor, 00°15'S, 22°52'E. Dense secondary forest and farmbash in forest. Several localities within about 10 km distance visited (villages Valokole and Votemankus).

Mabali 00°53'S, 8°08'E Dense secondary forest and farmbush in forest belt. Patches of partly flooded

grassland The old IRSAC station at the bank of Lac Tumba Monjuku 01°35'S, 21°07'E. In Salonga North National Park

Monkoto 01°35 S, 20°40'E. Just outside Salonga South National Park N'Sele 04°05'S, 15°03 E. North of K.nsihasa Very open farmland-s.wanna Nunea 01°9'S, 71°15'E. In Salonga North National Park

10 km North of Watsi Kengo, 00°46'S, 20°30 E. North of Salonga North National Park

to ISSCA 2006

Reflections on the Hyperolius nasutus group (Anura, Hyperoliidae)

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Species delimitation, species characterization and nomenclature are confused and unsettled in the African Hyperolius nosutus group. A recent paper changing the nomenclature fundamentally, solely based on mating calls, is commented critically. The present paper claims that H. Inomate! Laurent, 1958 should be maintained as a species separate from central African forms, that H. Initial Scholer, 1978 is not the same species as H. Altical Forms, that H. Initial Scholer, 1978 is not the same species as H. Alh, 1931 for the widespread savanna form is not so convincingly established that it justifies the dramatic change from the presently used name, H. nasutus Günther, 1865, and that the arguments for naming a central-western form H. nasutus rather than H. adspersus Peters, 1877 seems wash. Finally the name H. benguellersis (Bocage, 1893) seems synonymical characterize species in this group.

INTRODUCTION

The African Hyperolius nusulus group (Anura, Hyperoliudae) is very characteristic within the genus, consisting of small, slender, sharp-nosed frogs where both sexes are of the same size and where eggs are placed in water rather than above the water-line. In hie, the frogs are translucent green, a colour which after preservation fades to white or light yellow.

The group consists of several species with a very similar morphology A combination of morphological similarity, often very general original descriptions and, in several cases, loss of type specimens has contributed substantially to the present state of nomenclatural uncertainty. The problem is further compounded in that some characters, like call differences, ear anatomy, colour pattern, shape of snout and webbing suggest different species delimitation. Several recent papers have contributed to our knowledge, without reducing our confusion Below, the proposed species delimitation and nomenclatural changes are commented upon

HISTORY

Fifteen names have been used for members of the group of which many have at one time or another been synonymized. A list of these names is given in AMH ((2005)

PONYTON & BROADLEY (1987) recognized three species in the southern African savanna, I viridis Schiutz, 1975, It. nasutus Günther. 1865 and H bengueilenus (Bocage, 1893), the latter being their name for Schiotiz (1975) H granulatus (Boulenger, 1901). Schiotiz (1999) concluded that the species distinction between H. nasutus and H bengueilenus based on morphology and pattern of preserved specimens seems too ill-defined and inconstant to necessitate the recognition of two species. However, the distinction between these two species, H nasutus and H bengueilenus, was established by Wit son in an unpublished paper, based on nautonical differences of the trumpanic apoparatus.

SCHIOTZ & DAELE (2003) collected two species in Hillwood, north-western Zambia, synapatric but not syntopic and clearly distinguishable by their voice. They used the names *H* nanutus and *H* beneuellensis.

A MIRT (2005) in a study of the complex occurring in Cameroun, using voice, morphology and habitat preference, reached the conclusion that there are two species in that country Amiet chose the name H. igheticus Schiotz, 1963 for the northern, savanna-living form to indicate it being conspecific with material from Nigera to central Côte d'Ivoire, but he did not reject it being conspecific with material from Nigera to central Côte d'Ivoire, but he did not reject it being conspecific with more of the forms from the swanna further east and south in Africa. The other Cameronese species is found in clearings in the forest ("parasylvicolous" according to Amiet's terminology) in southern Cameroun and was given the name H. adsperuar Peters, 1877 (type locality: Cabinda, Angola). A miet's meticulous study revealed subtle differences in morphology between the two species in addition to significant differences in habitat preference and voice.

The nomenclature of Channing et al. (2002)

A profound revision of the nomenclature traditionally used in the group was published by Chansing et al. (2002) Based on recordings of mating calls throughout Africa, they divided the complex in three species, *H. acutic.eps* Ahl, 1931, *H. viridis* Schiotz, 1975 and *H. mastitis* Günther, 1865, none of the three names being congruent with previous uses. Their distinction is based solely on the voices, disregarding morphological similarities and differences. They divided their material based on 3 call types ("A. B and C"). The most widespread swanna form with a call type A_i in all recent literature fermed *H. massitis*, usage with the name *H. acuticis*; Instead the name *massitis* was allocated to what I believe is an assemblage of species consisting of, or including, *H. lamotter*; Laurent, 1958 and *H. adapersus* Peters, 1877 sensu Amir (2005). The name *H. iridia* was used for what I believe is Poystros & BroonLev's (1987) and Wilson's *H. benguellensis* (Bocage, 1893), not *H. viridis* vas wrongly attributed to the species *mastitis* and the name *H. alphetensis* was tip 96) placed as a synonym of *H. mastitis* in error (the call is of type A, not C, as stated on p. 96, correct in fig. 3). These forms are discussed below.

CHANNING et al. (2002) proposed formal changes in nomenclature and gave detailed lists of synonyms. Several of these nomenclatural allocations can in my opinion be questioned since the only species character they use, the voice, is for obvious reasons only preserved for type material mextraordinary cases. Instead they use the principle of parsimony, which in my

SCHIOTZ 63

opinion is fraught with danger in a group with several sympatric species of similar morphology. Perhaps the principle of least disturbance should rather be used

I have only encountered call C in the samples from Hillwood (Zambia) termed H nasutus in Thurura & Daelle (2003). My single confirmed sample of the voice of H. henguellensis from Hillwood is call type B (SCHIOTZ & DAELE, 2003, fig.2), all my remainder calls from Africa are of type A 2.

Hyperolius lamottei Laurent, 1958

H lumotte' Laurent, 1958 (type locality, between Zouguépo and Sérengbara, Gunnea) is meluded in Clasansing et a (2002) species H musture based on the voice which, according to them, is of type C. The sonogram (SCHIDTZ, 1967 fig. 118-119; 1999, fig. 170), however, shows a voice of lamottee quite dissimilar in structure to their type C, with a large number of harmonics of almost equal energy which gives the voice a very characteristic acoustical quality, different from that of their call type C. A closer analyse of a call type C, namely Auts i's (2005) recording of his H adaperum from Olembé (H. mautus sensi Chansitics et al., 2002) does not disclose such a structure with many harmonics. The frequency intensity maximum of the voice from Olembé (H. 49 kHz, of H lumottei 39 kHz (analysis kindly realized by Dr. T Dabelsteen, Zoological Institute, Copenhagen University). My recorded voices of H lumottee from both ends of the range, almost 1000 km apart (Freetown, Sierra Leone and Lamot, Gote d'Voire) are identical in structure.

The argument for H. Immuttee and CHANNING et al 3s (2002: 97) numtus being conspecific, rests partly on a citation from Sc Iniot7s (1999), but is based on a misreading, as my comparison was with what I then termed H. number (starter). The colour range of H. Immuttee is actually quite distinct from that of the other members of the group, the alleged distribution of Channing et al 1s. H. numbers is strangely disjunctive of H. Immuttee is included, and CHANNING et al. 5 (2002-97) information that this form in Côte d'Ivoire is a forest form is incorrect, as it is stractly a smanna species. RODH, & ERNST (2003) has therefore correctly re-established H. Immuttee is a distinct species.

Hyperolius viridis Schrotz, 1975

CHANNEG et al. 1/2(2002) use of the name *H. ninds* Schiotz, 1975 (type locality. 30 miles south-west of Mbeya, Tanzania) as one of their three recognized species may be based on a misidentification of their collected material. *H. vinds* is a species quite different in morphology from members of the *misitus* group, in fact so different that it was originally (5/c 1007). 1975, 1999) not even considered belonging to the *misitus* group and was not compared to that group but only to *H. pirollin*. Channesses al. 3/c 2002) use of the name seems to be based not in an examination of the type material in the Zoological Museum of Copenhagen, but solely on their 3 conclorer material. Collected in the Sumbawanga district close to the type locality of *H. tinds*. Such identification by locality should, however, be regarded with reservation since both *H. mistitis* and *H. benguellenss* (manesses up 1978) 105–8. BRODAITY, 1987) occur in this general area in addition to *H. virals*. Therefore, since they "fixing been made to distriguish."

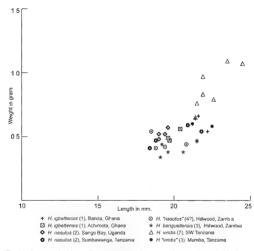


Fig. 1. Snout-vent length in millimetres versus weight in gram of preserved animals. Numbers in brackets refer to the species numbers in table [

between living and preserved voucher specimens of H wridis and H. acuticeps collected side-by-side at Mumba" (Chankingo et al., 2002, 92), it seems most likely that they have collected the two very similar (sometimes morphologically indistinguishable) species H masutus and H. benguellensis, not the diverging H. wiridis.

A major difference between H viridis and the H navitus group is that the latter consist of slender frogs, H. viridis being much more massive. This is difficult to express through measurements of body dimensions, instead I have attempted to express this feature through the weight of preserved animals (fig. 1). There are several sources of error in such measurements, but I believe it is defendable when used for a comparison between taxa. All specimens in figure I are males collected when calling, all were kept 10-12 hours in a plastic bag before.

Schiøtz 65

preservation so they have no stomach contents, and they have been preserved in 70% alcohol without injection. The weight of the attached museum numbers is deducted H wriths is clearly separate from the H. nasutus group, being only slightly larger but much heaver (fig. 1). This is not in agreement with CHANNING et al.'s (2002) description of their H wriths No other taxa are distinctive in these features

Alan Channing kindly sent me two males of "H. viridis sensu Channing et al., 2002" from Mumba, south-western Tanzania. By being slender and sharp-nosed (fig. 1-2), they differ clearly from the massive H. viridis Schistic, 1975. Furthermore, one of the specimens has very conspicuous paravertebral stripes in addition to the dorsolateral stripes, a distinguishing character for some, but not all, specimens of H benguellensis. My conclusion is that the two specimens from Mumba is the same species as that called H. benguellensis by POYNTON & BROADLEY (1987) and by SCHIDTZ & DARLE (2003).

My recorded calls of H wradis (SCHIBITZ, 1975, 1999, and unpublished calls from north of Mbeya) are of type A (A2 in Channing et al.'s terminologs), whereas the call of H uradis sensu Channing et al. is of type B (see CHANNING et al., 2002: fig. 1, compared with SCHIBITZ, 1975: fig. 111, 1999; fig. 396). Here it is significant that my calls of H benguellensis from Hillwood (SCHIBITZ & DALE, 2003, fig. 2) are of type B and thus are in agreement with what CHANNING et al. (2002) term H wirds with an alleged call B, but different from that of my H wirds:

Therefore, based on voice and morphology, I believe that H wnutrsensu (Thanning et al (2002) is the same as H benguellenss sensu POYNTON & BROADLEY (1987) and SCHIDTZ & DAELF (2003), in which case the distribution of this species is much wider than that given by CHANNING et al (2002) for ther H virids, namely from south-western Uganda to Zimbabwe, Botswana, Caprivi Strp, Angola and southern Republique Democratique du Congo, in many places sympatric with H nasutus sensu POYNTON & BROADLEY (1987) and in a limited area sympatric with H virids.

One of the two records of Channing et al. (2002) for *H viridis* is Hillwood (northeastern Zambia), where the frogs, as in Mumba, were collected together with their *H. acuticens* (see below, "the Hillwood mystery").

Hyperolius nasutus Günther, 1865

The name H nasutus Gunther, 1865 (type locality. Duque de Braganca, Angola) has for the state of the widespread form by Channing and abundant swancolous form. This name is rejected for this widespread form by Channing et al. (2002) and the name H nasutus testricted to a western species. Concerning H. nasutus sensu Channing et al., the long list of synonyms, including the name nasutus) should be critically scrutinized since four out of the six synonyms, including the name H nasutus, stand there "by parsimony" based on the assumption, without further proof, that H nasutus is a species confined to western central Africa and that other species, for instance the species called H beinguellesis, are absent in the area. The only argument in several cases seems to be the "vicinity" to other records with or without known voices for instance H beinguellenists was treated as a synonym of H nasutus, the argument being that it was "collected 800 km south of the type locality for H nasutus and we argument being that it was "collected 800 km south of the type locality for H nasutus and we

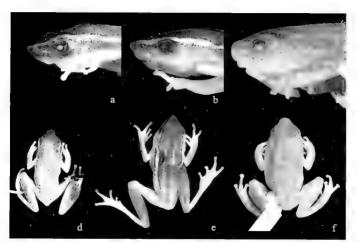


Fig. 2. Lateral and detectiveness of specimens of Hopeoders (and Hopeoderossensus emotive Data) (2003), ZMCCR 076-43 from Hilborod. Zamba, the eH - med x-sensus Crix-Systoceta, (2002), ZMC R = 7192 few Mc 2124). Mumba, Tanzama, Moyer key (c) H. Gundi Semint 1975, ZMCCR 03994), holotype, south-sewtern Mbeya, Tanzama.

SCHIOTZ 67

Tabe I. - Informal work up as of presumed scaning species in the Hyperolum notion group, and of H small and H famoute No forest nonencializating proposals intended humans in hold are those used by Carbonnia & all (2001), References to use of mines. A Value (2005), C. (Tabes to ct. at (2002), L. Lucaser (1943), P.B.R. Province & Biocacter (1987), S.T.S. Scinotz (1975), S.V. ext. (2009), S.R.O., Scinotz (1975), S.V. ext. (1995), S.R.O., Scinotz (1975), S.V. ext. (1975), S

| Species number | Names used | Call | Distribution | Remarks |
|-------------------|---|------|---|---|
| 1 | nasarus S99 (part) acuticeps: C yelettensis: A | A2 | Northern Cameroun to central Côte d'Ivoire | Probab y conspecific with species 2 |
| 2 | naturus (part) P&B. S99, W acutoceps. (| A2 | Eastern-southern part of Africa | Probab y conspecific with species I |
| 3. | grandatus \$75 henguetiensus P&B (part), W \$&D viridis C | В | South-eastern L ganda to Zimbabwe to northern Botswana, Capriva, Angeva | Some specimens, paravertebra, lines: inner var reduced, well pigmented, pointed snow |
| 4 | nesutus. C (part), S&D (*) adopterus. A | C | Southern Cameroun, possibly to coastal Augo-a, north-western Zambra, Caprim (*), Botswana (*) | The only parasylvicole in complex, distinct voice |
| 5 | nasicus L | ? | Republique Democratique du Congo | Very sharp snout, status uncertain, possibly conspecific to thispocies 3 |
| 6 | lamotter: S99 nasutus: C | m u. | Western West Africa | Disturct call and colour pattern western vicamant of species I |
| 7 | viridis: \$75, P&B. \$99 | (A2) | South-western Tanzania, eastern Zamb-a | Morphologically distract from the dissolution |

assign it to this species" (Channing et al., 2002: 96). Wilson has established the occurrence of what she calls H, benguellensis from Huila, Angola, just south-east of the type locality of H beneullensis.

The widespread swanna form is called by Channino et al. (2002) H. acuticeps Ah. [1931] instead of H aratin Guinher, 1865. The somewhat strange argument is that he alleged call type of H acuticeps (type A) is unknown from western Angola, the type locality of H anatures. The argument may not be entirely convincing since no vouces of any species of the Hyperoliun anature group have been recorded from Angola! Channino et al. (2002) used instead the species name navuture for a form with a call type C and a distribution on "the west coast of Africa" and adjacent interior. The validity of their argument (and also their inclusion of H beinguellens in the synonymy of H navuture) must hinge upon only one species of the H masutur group being present in Angola, which has not been demonstrated and seems unlikely. Although no recent collections have been made in Angola, it would seem reasonable to expect two savanicolous species there (sp. 2 and 3 according to table 1) and one parasylvicolous (sp. 4), meaning that dristuce changes in nonenclature based on "varinty" or "parasimony", and implicitly based on an assumption that only one species is present, should be treated with some reservation.

Whereas the call of the holotype of H, nasutus obsiously cannot be known, at least part of Channing et al.'s records of H nasutus are referable to what Asii i (2005) termed H adspersus (see below)

My remark in SCHIOLZ & DAELE (2003) that our H nasuring from Hillwood had a voice "similar to the voice elsewhere in the range" is incorrect. Our sample had a call type C

Hyperolius adspersus Peters, 1877

H adspersus Peters, 1877 (type locality: Chunchoxo, Angola), the only parasylvocolous species in the complex, is, according to AMET (2005), distributed from the southern (forested) half of Cameroun to coastal Gabon, south-western Republic of Congo (reported by LARGEN & DOWSETT-LEMAIRE, 1991, as H. aff. nasutus), lower République Démocratique du Congo and Cabinda (type locality), and probably coastal Angola down to 12°S. Amir's (2005) H. advantse (secluding H. Imonter).

The possibility that SCHIDTZ & DAELE'S (2002) frogs with call type C from north-western Zambia, which they referred to H nazitus; are in fact Amiet's H. adspersus, cannot be excluded Amiet has kindly examined a sample of our H nazitus from north-western Zambia (Amiet, 2005: 303), and reached the conclusion that they are very similar in voice and body dimensions to his H adspersus, but differ in being somewhat smaller not a good species character in this group and having a shorter snout. Our locality for this species in north-western Zambia could be reaerded as a locality for a parasylvicolous fauna

If H nasutur sensu Schiotz & DAFLE (2002) from north-western Zambia is the same species as H adspersus sensu Ametr (2005), it does expand the distribution considerably, but not unreasonably for a parasylvicolous species. Whether Channing et al.'s (2002) record of their H nasutus from the Captivi Strip and Okavango is the same ought to be investigated.

Hyperolius acuticeps Ahl, 1931

CHANNING et al. (2002) used the name H. acutocept Ahl, 1931 (type locality, Konde-Nika, Tanzania) "since it appears most parsimonous", for what has hitherto been called H. navutus, based on the type locality in an area where only call type A has been recorded but from where few recordings of members of the group are available. This is a bold move to change a name having been in common use for 140 years.

The many records in the Interature of *II. nasutus* from Ethiopia and eastern and southern Arman are more appeared by Chansmore et al. (2002), but it can be implied by their maps that they should be referred to *II. acuticeps*.

Hyperolius benguellensis (Bocage, 1893)

H) perolusi henguellenus (Bocage, 1893) (type locality: Cahata, Benguella, Angola) remains an enigmatic species, If Chanshios et al. 1s (2002) H massuus is the same as AMIT'S (2005) parasylvesolous. H adopersus, and if H sirids, both in Schiotz' and in Channing's sense, has a very restricted distribution ("highlands linking the eastern and western Rift valleys in northern Zambia and southern Tanzamar", according to Chanshing et al., 2002), there remains a question not addressed by Chanshios et al., (2002) what is the status and correct name for what has reasonably commengly been established as a distinct specie, called H benguelleurs by PONION & BROADLIY (1987) and Wilson (unpublished), with a wide distribution (maps in PoNION & BROADLIY, 1991, and in Wilson, unpublished)?

Schiotz 69

PONYTON & BROADLEY's (1987) study left much doubt about the distinction between H horizulenis and their H, nasutus, SCHIOTZ (1999) was therefore reluctant to recognize the two species based on the rather inconstant distinguishing characters. MILSON (unpublished) seemed to point at an objective difference between them SCHIOTZ & DATLE (2003) were able to distinguish clearly between two species at Hillwood, but since their H, nasutus might be Amitr's (2005) H, adopersus, we still lack an authoritative comparison between the two widespread susaman species. H nasutus and H, benguelleniss sensu Poynton & Broadley, SCHIOTZ & DAELE (2003) separated their two species from Hillwood (sympatric but apparently not syntopic) based on the voice, and showed that the "benguelleniss character", light paravertebral stripes in addition to the dorsolateral stripes, is unsuited as a diagnostic character since it is only present in about 15 % of our material of males with benguelleniss call. The voice, call B, and Wilson's ear character may be diagnostic for H, benguelleniss.

CIANNING et al. (2002) included H. benguellenss (type locality: Cahata, Benguella, Angola) in the synonymy of H masunus (type locality: Duque de Braganca, Angola) purely based on "proximity" (800 km²) of the type localities, but they did not discuss the status of the large quantity of material of H. benguellenss from Botswana, Zambua, Malawi and Zimbabwe treated by Porysrow & Boxolies (1987) and by Wilsson (unpublished), the latter also including material from République Démocratique du Congo, Uganda and Angola. Wilson (unpublished) had unfortunately examined very few samples of the two species from East Africa. One of the samples of H. benguellenss examined by Wilson is from Huila (Angola), quite close to the type locality of that species, which may point at H. benguellensis being the correct name for the species (by parsimonyl).

SCHIOTZ & DAFLE'S (2003) record of the voice of H benguellenis (call type B) seems to be the only record where the call has definitely been correlated with pattern, webbing and with Wilson's own examination of the inner ear in our sample (Wilson, personal communication)

My photo of a typical H benguellensis with paravertebral stripes (SCHIOTZ, 1975, fig. 98, 1999; fig. 164) was referred to H. acuticeps by Channing et al. (2002; 96).

Hyperolius nasicus Laurent, 1943

H museus Laurent 1943 (type locality: Kasiki, Marringu, République Démocratique du Congol has not been mentioned in the literature recently In the Royal Museum of Central Africa, Tervuren I found a few samples from République Democratique du Congo identified by Laurent as that species for H museus museus). The type material from north-eastern Congo has a very pointed, shark-like snout The four half-grown paratypes of H museus from the type locality have returned conspicuous white dorsolateral lines after preservation, univaid for the H museus from you muse the light stripes normally tend to thatpapera when the green ground colour vanishes after preservation. The male holotype (snout-vent length 23.4 mm) of H museus is unstriped. I feel that H museus should be compared to H horgouellenss which also has a pointed snout and so much pigmentation that the light dorsolateral stripes often are visible after preservation. H museus is further discussed in Section's 2006.

THE HILLWOOD MYSTERY

Hillwood in Mwinilunga district (north-western Zambia) is a well-investigated locality. It has provided material of two species treated by Schiertz & Daleit (2003) as H nasutis and H benguellenss, and by Chanshno et al. (2002) as H acutiesp and H viridis. The actual collecting localities seem to be the same: when Schiertz and Daele visited Hillwood in 1999, we were shown the localities where Channing and Drewes had collected their material a few years previously ("Pauls fishpood" and a small nundated meadow on the way to the guest-huts).

A direct comparison between our observations and those of CLANNING et al. (2002) is complicated by Schutz and Daele finding call types B ("benguellensis") and C ("maxuus"). Whereas Channing and Drewes in allegedly the same two localities found call types B ("viridis") and A ("acuticeps"). CHANNING et al.'s (2002) call types A and B may, to judge from their descriptions and published sonograms, be easy to confuse but type C seems quite unmistakable

CONCLUSION

Voice alone may not be sufficient to characterize species in the Hyperolus nasutus group, and voice in combination with the principle of parsimony is insufficient to allocate names to species, considering several eases of sympatric occurrence and considering that the voice of type material is only known in two cases (species 1 and 7, table 1).

There seem to be between five and seven species in the group (table 1).

Species 6 and 7 seem well defined and their names (H. lamottei and H. viridis) established.

Species 4 is well-defined by non-morphological characters (voice and habitat). The name *H. adspersus* is not certain.

Species 1 and 2 may be conspecific, their nomenclature is unsettled.

Species 3 and 5 are badly defined, especially in relation to species 2, and incompletely known

Although members of the H1 perolus masutus group are abundant and easy to collect, we lack material from many areas, for instance the savanna between Cameroun and Ethiopa and from Angola and southern République Democratique du Congo, and we lack recordings from even more areas. In this connection it should be mentioned that all the authors' recordings are placed at the Library of Natural Sounds, Cornell University, and at the Zoological Museum, Copenhagen.

Nomenclatural changes in the Hyperolius navatus group should be based on a broad spectrum of morphological and non-morphological characters, including the voice, and on studies of DNA Schiøtz 71

ACKNOWI FOGEMENTS

J.-L. Amiet, J. C. Poynton and B. Clarke are thanked for constructive comments to stages of the muscript, and J. C. Poynton and A. M. Richardy, Warfield for an overhaul of the language. Birgitte Rubek and Geret Browad produced the illustrations.

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Corresponding editor: Alain Dubois.

Les Amphibiens du Togo: état actuel des connaissances¹

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In a monograph on the biodiversity of Togo, thirty-nine species of amphibians were listed for the country. We present in this paper a more complete list of the amphibian species recorded from Togo based on the published data available. We remove from the list ten species whose statute or presence in Togo is dubious: Amnirana occidentatlis, Hyperolius laticeps, H. marmoratus, H. occidentalis, H. parallelus, Ptychadena taenioscelis, Phrynobatrachus latifrons, Conraua alleni, Bufo superciligris and Werneria preussi. Twenty additional species are included in the new list : Arthroleptis poecilonotus, Afrixalus vittiger, A. weidholzi, Hyperolius auttulatus, H. nitidulus, H. sylvaticus, Kassina cassinoides, K fusca, Leptopelis bufonides, L hyloides, Phrynobatrachus calcaratus, P. aff. calcaratus, P. francisci, P. gutturosus, P. plicatus, Hildebrandtia ornata, Ptychadena aequiplicata, P. tellinii, P. tournieri, P. trinodis. Species distribution over the whole country indicates that the ecological zone IV (meridional part of the country) has a highest species richness compared to the four other ecological zones. However, these results remain still preliminary and more research is now under way on all of the herpetological fauna of Togo.

INTRODUCTION

Le Togo est stute dans le Golfe de Gunée en Afraque de l'ouest (fig. 1). Il est constitué d'une bande de terre localisee entrle els ét el 17 parallèles Nord et les 0 et 2 degrés de longitude Est. Le pays «'étend du nord au sud sur 660 km et de l'est à l'ouest sur 50 km au uneau de la côte. Sa largeur est de 120 km entre les "'et 8" parallèles Nord. Son rehlef est peu accidenté. exceptée la chaîmé de l'Atakora qui traverse ne charpe le pays du sud ouest au nord-est, avec des sommets parfois de plus de 900 m dans la partie méridionale de la chaîne. Des peneplanes d'altitude variant entre 100 et 400 m se distinguent au nord, au centre et au sud du pays.

1 Communication présentée lors de la table ronde "Systematique et diversité des Amphibiens" organisée par l'ISSCA et tenue à l'Université d'Angers (France) le 3 fevrier 2006

Denus l'énoque coloniale, des travaux ont été consacrés à la faune topolaise, mais ils restent toujours très fragmentaires et cette faune demeure de nos jours encore neu connue. En ce qui concerne le cas particulier des Amphibiens, les quelques rares publications disponibles datent de l'époque de la colonisation allemande (WERNER, 1898; AHL, 1924, 1931), et depuis lors aucun inventaire systématique n'a été réalisé. Dans les années 1970, des travaux ont été réalisés sur les Amphibiens du Togo (Huiselmans, 1972, Bourgat, 1979, Killo, 1981; BOURGAT et al., 1996), mais ils portaient essentiellement sur les parasites d'Amphibiens (Trématodes, Polystomes, etc.). Tout récemment, les travaux réalisés dans le cadre de la monographie sur la biodiversité (Anonyme, 2002), indiquent la présence de 39 espèces d'Amphibiens au Togo. Dans ce rapport à la rédaction duquel l'un d'entre nous (LE.B.) a participé, il est mentionné que des travaux de terrain ont été entrepris, mais l'essentiel des résultats est basé sur une compilation des données bibliographiques. Les objectifs de ce rapport de monographie dont les travaux ont duré au moins deux ans étaient de fournir une liste des composantes de la biodiversité du Togo, les menaces qui pèsent sur cette biodiversité et des propositions de stratégies de conservation. Cependant, en ce qui concerne la faune, l'absence d'une documentation fournie et l'insuffisance de la maîtrise de la systématique des Amphibiens en particulier ont conduit à de nombreuses confusions d'ordre taxinomique (synonymie). Par exemple, des espèces nominales actuellement considérées comme des synonymes figurent sur la liste, ainsi que d'autres dont la zone de distribution concerne l'Afrique centrale, orientale et australe. Nous avons également releve des espèces dites endémiques au Togo alors qu'elles présentent une distribution plus vaste dans la sous-région

Pour remédier à cette insuffisance de données, nous nous proposons de fournir une liste plus complète des espèces d'Amphibiens recensées jusqu'ui au Togo Malgré noi recherches bibliographiques, il est possible que ce travail ne soit pas absolument exhaustif, certaines publications ayant pu nous céchapper. Cet article constitue le début d'un long processus que nous voulons engages sur l'inventaire de l'herpétofaune dans le pays. Dans ce travail nous nous proposons non seulement d'apporter une améloration au rapport national de la monographie sur la biodiversité, mais également des cléments de réponse aux futurs programmes de réhabilitation et de gestion des aires protégées au Togo et aussi aux stratégies de conservation de la biodiversité.

Le présent travail est base sur les recherches bibliographiques concernant les Amphibiens dans la sous-région ouest-africaine. Nous présentons deux listes d'espèces d'Amphibiens la première concerne celles dont la présence a cté signalee au Togo, et la deuxeme celles dont la presence dans le pays est probable, étant donnée leur distribution connue. Pour élaborer cette dernière liste, nous n'avons considére que les espèces signalées à la fois en Côte d'Tourer, au Ghana, au Bénin et au Nigeria (fig. 1). Les numéros de collection des spécimens des differentes espèces provenant du Togo et répertories comme présents dans divers musées européens et américains sont précisés.

Étant donné que ce travail est une compilation des donnees bibliographiques, il serant trop long de citer ici toutes les références utilisées. Il est intéressant de préciser que deux types de données bibliographiques ont été exploités au cours de ce travail.

Les premières ont permis de recenser les espèces d'Amphibiens signalees, jusqu'à présent au Togo. Nous pouvons citer entre autres. Weisner, [1898], Ahi. [1924a, 1931], Schiotz (1963, 1999), Bourgar (1979), Ohie R. (1996), Ohie R. & Kazadi (1989). Lamotti & Ohier (1997),



Fig. 1 — Présentation du Togo et des zones ecologiques du pays. Zone 1: zone de plaimes du nord, climat tropical avec une assion des pluites de jui nó actobre et une siano séche de novembre à mai (six à septi mois écologiquement sexel, correspondant essentiellement aux savanes soudaniennes. Zone III zone des plaimes de sexel fiaisches, une taison pluvieuse (avril-octobre) et une saison seche (octobre-mars) marqué par l'harmatian, domain de mosaique de forsté denses séches et de savanes. Zone III zone des plaimes du centre, climat marqué par une assion des pluies et une saison séche de 4 mois au moiss, domaine des savanes boisses guinementes. Zone IV non eméradonal de se savanes. Zone III cond est plaimes du centre, climat marqué par une assion des pluies et une saison séche de 4 mois au moiss, domaine des savanes boisses guinementes. Zone IV non eméradonal des sons tols 10 Togo, climat subrequior al de transition caractérisé par une grande saison pluvieuse (mars-octobre) interrompue par une lêgére dimination no avoit on en septembre, de domain ede fordés denses semi-calulaciónes. Zone V plaine óbtere du sud Togo, climat subéquatorial marque par un deficit pluviométrique (800 mm/an à Lomé).

RÔDEL (2000), RODEL & BRANCH (2002), AKANI et al. (2004), LEACHÉ et al. (2006) et NAGO et al. (2006). Trois de ces contributions nous ont été particulièrement utiles pour établir cette liste La première est celle de BOURGAT (1979) qui a présenté une liste d'espécie d'Amphibiens dont les spécimens ont été disséqués pour l'étude des Térmatodes d'Amphibiens du Togo. Les deux autres sont celles de RóDEL & ACHE (2003) et LEACHÉ et al. (2006). La zone d'étude considérée par ces auteurs est centrée sur la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana, mas selle comporte également la zone montagneuse à forêt dense séche qui s'étend de la latitude de Sotoubous-Sokodé à celle de Défalé. Si nous nous référons aux travaux de Enex (1979), sont incluses dans cette zone d'étude toute la zone ecologique IV et toute la partie ouest de la zone écologique II du Togo. Nous avons par ailleurs considéré les travaux de NAGO et al. (2006) pour la distribution des espéces dans la zone nord du Togo.

Le deuxieme type de données bibliographiques concerne la phylogénie et la taxinomie survies dans cet article. Il s'agit principalement de BOULENGIR (1906), LAI RENT (1951, 1961, 1972), Amit' (1972) et Dubois (1992, 2005). Les relations phylogénétiques publiées par FROST et al. (2006) sont dans les grandes lignes en accord avec la classification proposée par Dubots (2005) bien que Frost et al. (2006) aient adopté une attriude plus "diviseuse" ("splitter"), ce qui les a amentes à elever plusieurs sous-familles de Dubois au rang de familles. Le travail de Bossuvr et al. (2006) sur les relations phylogénétiques des Ranidae aboutit à une taxinomie voisine de celle de Dubois (2005). Nous utilisons ici cette dermère classification, qui reste provisoire car de nouveaux travaux en cours y apporteront certainement des modifications

HARITATS

La position géographique du Togo permet de rencontrer du sud au nord une diversité d'écosystèmes allant des grammées côtières aux forêts denses de type subéquatorial de transition, et finissant par la savane soudanienne. Selon Ern (1979), on distingue sur le plan botanique cinq zones écologiques au Togo (fig. 1). Du nord au sud on rencontre d'abord la zone 1 ou domaine des savanes soudanaises dominées par des Légumineuses Mimosoidae (Acacu spp.) ou des Combretaceae (Terminalia spp., Combretum spp.), des forêts sèches à Anogeissus, des forêts galeries et par endroits des prairies autour des mares temporaires ou permanentes. La zone II est constituée des massifs de collines partiellement convertes de forêts sèches denses, sèches et des forêts claires. La zone III ou zone des savanes guinéennes est caractérisée par une flore relativement variée, dominée par des Combretaceae et des Andropogonae. La zone IV correspond à la partie méridionale du pays. Elle est caractérisée par un climat subéquatorial et dominée par de véritables forêts denses semi-décidues. La zone V correspond au littoral avec des formations vegétales très dégradées constituées de bosquets littoraux, de prairies halophiles ou marécageuses et de mangrove. Cette diversité des écosystèmes floristiques est propice à l'existence d'une grande diversité d'espèces animales, dont les Amphibiens, animaux inféodés pour la plupart à des habitats caractéristiques.

ABRÉVIATIONS

MCZ: Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard, Cambridge, USA. MNHN: Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, France. NHMW. Naturistorisches Museum, Wien, Autriche. PEM: Port Elizabeth Museum, Port Elizabeth, Afrique du Sud. ZMB: Zoologisches Museum, Berlin, Allemagne ZMUC: Zoologiscal Museum. Conenhaeue Danemark.

ESPÈCES D'AMPHIBIENS SIGNALÉES DU TOGO

Ordre ANURA

Famille BREVICIPIDAE Bonaparte, 1850

Sous-famille ARTHROLEPTINAE Mivart, 1869

Arthroleptis brevipes Ahl, 1924. L'holotype décrit par Ahl. (1924a: 252) a été collecté à Bismarckburg au Togo. Les spécimens sont conservés au ZMB. Depuis lors, aucun travail d'inventaire n'a signalé la présence de cette espéce dans la région. Tout récemment, Rônel. & AGVEI (2003) ont collecté des specimens d'espèces appartenant à la sous-famille des Arthroleptinae dans la région de "Togo-Volta highlands". Selon les auteurs, ces spécimens appariennent à une sepéce différente de A. beveyres Rôbet et al (2005) confirment que les specimens collectés en 2003 sont différents de A. brevières poste et ne presentent aucune similitude avec les autres espèces de la même famille présentes dans la sous-région ouest-africaine.

Arthroleptus poecclonotus Peters. 1863. Cette espèce a été signalée par Bourcar (1979; 598) dont les spécimens ont eté disséqués pour l'etude des Trématodes d'Amphibiens du Togo Leacrée et al (2006) ont rapporté la présence de l'espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana Néammoins de nombreux doutes subsistent dans la taxinomie du genre Arthroleptus en Afrique de l'ouest (RÖDEL & AGYEI, 2003, RÖDEL & BANGOURA, 2004, RÖDEL et al., 2005; Leacrée et al., 2006). L'espèce a été signalée en Côte d'Ivoire, au Ghana, au Bénin et au Nigeria (RÖDEL, 2000; 181). A poecilonotus est une espèce de savane ouest-africaine, caractéristique des galeries forestières. D'autres especes d'Arthrolpetis seraient présentes dans la chaine d'Atakora au nord du Bénin (Nago et al., 2006).

Sous-famille HEMISOTINAE Cope, 1867

Hemsus mammoratus (Steindachner, 1863) Selon RODEL (2000), l'espèce a éte signalée en Côte d'Ivoire, au Ghana, au Bénin et au Nigeria. Elle a été citée comme faisant partie de la faune d'Amphibiens de la région "Togo-Volta highlands" (Rôdel & Acryel, 2003; Leacrité et al., 2006 29). Par ailleurs, deux spécimens mâles du genre Hemsus ont été capturés au cours des mêmes travaux sans toutefois préciser s'il s'agit de l'espèce H. mammoratus. Dans la monographe sur la biodiversité du Togo (ANONIME, 2002), Hemsus sudamora Steindachner, 1864, synonyme de Hemisus marmoratus (Steindachner, 1863) selon LAURINT (1972; 29), a été recensé. Bourcar (1979), dans ses travaux sur les Trématodes, a disséqué des spécimens de l'espèce qu'il à récoltés au Togo.

Sous-famille HYPEROLINAE Laurent, 1943

Afrivalus darsulti (Peters, 1875) – Scrinotz (1999 48), Rodet & Activel (2003, 221) et Liacché et al. (2006: 29) ont indiqué la présence de l'espèce dans la zone écologique IV du Togo. L'espèce figure également sur la liste des espèces dont les spécimens ont été disseques par Bouract (1979). Les travaux de la monographie sur la biodiversité indiquent la présence de l'espèce au Touco (Anonyma, 2002)

Africulus vittiger (Peters, 1875) Cette espèce a été recensée par Rodi L. & AGYLI (2003) et Lacrif et al. (2006) au cours des travaux le long de la frontière entre le Togo et Ghana. Elle a été également signalée au Togo par Boi RGAT (1979) et au nord du Benin par NAGO et al. (2006) Afrixalus weulholzi (Mertens, 1938) Les travaux de Leaché et al. (2006; 29) indiquent pour la première fois la présence de cette espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana. L'espèce est signalee au nord du Bénin (NaGo et al., 2006). Elle présente une distribution géographique depuis le Sénégal usqu'au Centre-Afrique (RODEL, 2000)

Hyperolius baumanni Ahl, 1931. – L'bolotype MCZ 17627 décnt par AHL (1931) a été collecté à Missahohoé (Kpalimé), dans la zone forestière du Togo. SCHIOTZ (1999: 117) a confirmé la valhdité de ce taxon. RÓDEL & AGYEI (2003) et LeACHÉ et al. (2006: 29) ont indiqué la présence de l'espèce dans la zone de contact entre le Togo et le Ghana.

Hyperollus concolor (Hallowell, 1844). AHL (1931) a décrit des spécimens provenant de Missahohoé (zone forestière du Togo) sous quatre noms distincts: Hyperolus depressus, Hyperolus normer, Hyperolus narmus et Hyperolus soperois. Selon Lauxest (1951, 1958, 1961), ces quatre espèces nominales sont toutes synonymes de Hyperolus concolor (Hallowell, 1844). L'espèce présente une large distribution dans les zones forestières ouest-africaines depuis la Stera Léone jusqu'au sud du Cameroun (Schierz, 1999: 105; Rôbrt, 2000: 194). Selon Laurent (1961), les spécimens de AHL (1931) sont en collection sous les numéros MCZ 17639, ZMB 36088, 36090, 36092 et 36113. BOURGAT (1979), RDBLE & AGYEI (2003) et Learnét et al. (2006) ont également signalé la présence de l'espèce au Togo.

H) perollus fusciventus Peters, 1876. – Les types de l'espèce (spécimens ZMB 36104) en provenance de "Klein-Popo" ou Petit-Popo (actuellement Ancho, au Togo) ont été déents par ABIL (1931) sous le nom de Hyperollus rosaceus, synonyme de H, fuscriventus selon LAURENT (1961. 69) Cette espèce est représentée au Togo par la sous-espèce Hyperollus fusciventris huntoni (Boulenger, 1883) (SCHIOTZ, 1963. 66; RODEZ, 2000 et RODEZ, & ACYEL, 2003.) Elle a eté recensée depuis l'ouest du Cânana à l'est du Nigera (SCHIOTZ, 1967). LAENCHÉ et al. (2006) ont recensé cette sous-espèce dans la région de la Volta au Ghana. Elle figure sur la liste des espèces d'Amphibiens dont les spécimens ont été dissèqués par BOURGAT (1979: 598) pour l'étude des Térmatodes du Togo.

Hyperollus guttulatus (Jünther, 1859. – RÖDEL & ACVET (2003) ont indiqué la présence de l'espèce dans les zones écologiques Het IV du Togo H. guttulatus figure sur la liste des espèces d'Amphibiens dont les spècimens ont eté analysés par BOURGAT (1979) pour l'étude des Trématodes du Togo. L'espèce a été également identifiée en Côte d'Ivoire, au Ghana et au Nigeria.

Hipperolius musturas Gunther, 1865 — L'espèce présente une large distribution dans les zones de savane guinémen de l'Afrique de l'ouest, du centre et du sud, Les travaux de Róbeia. A Goyal (2003) et Leacrif et al (2006) ont établi su présence dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana. Des spécimens de l'espèce ont été exploites par Bourcar (1979) dans l'inventaire des Trématodes du Togo. Deux publications récentes ont discuté sur la taxmome des gernouilles rapportées à ce taxon (CHANNIN-GE et al. 2002; AMIET, 2005). Cependant, le statut taxmomique de ce groupe ne put pas être considéré comme suffisamment résolu par ces travaux. Nous continuons à nommer les grenouilles de ce groupe comme H nasutus selon SCHIOTZ (1999) et RÓBEI (2000).

Hyperolius midulus. Peters, 1875. Très commune en Afrique de l'ouest, l'espèce a éte recensée par Rooit. & Acytei (2003) et LEACHÉ et al. (2006) dans la région de la Volta entre le Togo et le Ghana Bourça († (1979) a également signalé la présence de l'espèce au Togo.

Hyperollus sylvaticus Schiotz, 1967. – Cette espèce présente une distribution dans la sousrégion ouest-africaine. Elle a été citée comme faisant partie des espèces d'Amphibiens de la région de la Volta entre le Togo et le Ghana (Rôdet, & Acyta, 2003). Elle a également été signalée recemment au Bénin (NAGO et al., 2006). Nous présumons sa présence probable au Togo.

Hyperollus torrents Schietz, 1967. Les spécimens-types (ZMUC R074376) décrits par SCRIIDTE (1967, 218) proviennent de Alvakhgum (Togo), dans la zone forestière (zone écologique IV) adjacente avec le Ghana. Des spécimens de l'espèce récoltés au Togo ont été analysés par BOURGAT (1979) pour l'étude des Trémandoles Cette espèce longtemps considéree comme endémique de la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana (Scelinorz, 1967; Rôsiti. & AGVH, 2003; Leaché et al , 2006) a été signalee dans les forêts de refuge au nord du Bénin (NAGO et al , 2006) Il est probable qu'elle présente une distribution plus large.

Kassina cassinoides (Boulenger, 1903) Cette espèce a été signalée au Togo par BOURGAT (1979) Elle est commune dans les savanes ouest-afficianes Elle a été signalée en Côte d'Ivoire et au Ghang (RÓBEL, 2000; 255) et au nord du Bénin (NAGO et al., 2006).

Kassina fuvca Schiotz, 1967 – Tout comme pour Kassina cassinodes, c'est BOURGAT (1979) qui a signalé la présence de cette espèce au Togo. Elle est exclusivement savanicole et signalée dans les autres pays de la sous-region (RÓDEL, 2000-258)

Kassina senegalemss (Duméril & Bibron, 1841). – L'espèce a été recensée par Ródel. & AGYEI (2003) et L'ACHÉ et al. (2006) dans la zone de contact entre le Togo et le Ghana BOURGAT (1979) l'a aussi signalée de Lomé au Togo. Kassina senegalems s présente une large distribution dans toutes les savanes africaines (SCHHOTZ, 1999: 233).

Sous-famille LEPTOPELINAE Laurent, 1972

Leptopelis bufonides Schiotz, 1967. Cette espèce a été signalée au Togo par BOURGAT (1979) Selon ROBEL (2000: 192), elle est caractéristique des savanes ouvertes. Elle a été signalée au Ghana et au Nigern et tout récemment au Bénn (NAGO et al. 2006).

Leptopelis Invloides (Boulenger, 1906). L'espèce est fréquente dans les forêts galeries en Áfrque de l'Ouest (Schiotz, 1999; 253). Elle a été signalée dans la zone forestère entre le Ghana et le Togo (RODIL & AGYEL, 2003, LEACHÉ et al., 2006; 31). Cette espèce présenterait des problèmes d'ordre taxinomique (RÖDIL & BRANCH, 2002).

Leptopelis virulas (Güinther, 1869). La présence de l'espèce au Togo a éte signalee par Att. (1924a, 1929). Les holotypes de Leptopelis nums Ahl, 1924 et de Leptopelis risogenus Ahl, 1929, noms synonymes de Leptopelis virilas (Günther, 1869) selon PARKHR (1936: 97), ont ete decrits a partir de specimens collectés à Mango au Togo, conservés au ZMB, BOURGAT (1979) a travaille sur des spécimens de l'espèce collectés au Togo ROMI. & AGNH (2003) et Lavchit et al. (2006) ont signale la présence de cette espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana.

Famille BUFONIDAE Gray, 1825

Bujo maculatus Hallowell, 1854. Cette espece est relativement abondante dans la région de Kloto (Kpalimé) (Pulot & Exbrayat, 2002). Elle a également eté signalée par Rodel. &

ACVEI (2003. 47) et LEACHÉ et al (2006) dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana RÖDEL (2000) a indiqué une distribution de l'espèce dans les zones forestières de toute l'Afrique de l'ouest, centrale ainsi qu'en Afrique de l'est.

Bufo pentoni Anderson, 1893. L'espèce a été citée au Togo dans la monographie sur la biodiversité (ANONYME, 2002). Des parasites du genre Eupolystoma ont été récoltés sur des spécimens de Bufo pentoni collectés à Dapaong au Togo (BOURGAT et al. 1983), qui ont été déposés au MNHN sous les numéros MNHN 1980.1145-1148. Selon les travaux de RÖDEL (2000. 62), B. pentoni présente une distribution dans les savanes soudanniennes dans toute l'Afrique de Jouest, en Afrique de l'est (Egypte, Erythrée) et même au Moven-Orient (Yémen).

Bufo regularis Reuss, 1833. – Cette espèce est largement répartie en Afrique, en particulier en Afrique de l'ouest, du centre et du nord-est (HULSELMANS 1970; SALAMI-CADOUX, 1979). PUDG. & EXBRAYAT (1987, 2002) ont étudié la reproduction de l'espèce en utilisant des spécimens collectés à Lomé et Kpalimé au Togo. L'espèce a été également signalée au Togo par BOURGAT (1979). RÖDIE, & AGYEI (2003) et LEACITÉ et al. (2006).

Bufo togoensis Ahl, 1924. – L'holotype décrit par Ahl. (1924a. 253) a été récolté à Bismarckburg dans la Règion d'Adélé (zone IV du Togo) BOurgar (1979) a travaillé sur les spécimens qu'il a récoltés au Togo. L'espèce a été longtemps considérée comme endémique du Togo. Les travaux de Rôde. Bernet (2002) ont établi la présence de l'espèce dans la région de la Haute Dodo (ouest ivoirien) (spécimens PEM A 7903, A 7919-7920). L'espèce présente en réalité une distribution ouest-africaine plus large. Elle a été signalée au Ghana, en Guinée, au Liberia et en Sierra Leone Elle est souvent confondue avec B. lutifrons ou B. camerumensis qui présentent une distribution en Afrouse centrale (Rôdd). & BANGOURA. 2004.

Famille MICROHYLIDAE Gunther, 1858 (1843)

Sous-famille PHRYNOMERINAE Noble, 1931

Phrynomants microps Peters, 1875. Selon RODEL (2000; 273), des spécimens ont été récoltés dans toute l'Afrique de l'ouest et du centre, y compris le Togo. Dans ses travaux sur les Trématodes d'Amphibiens du Togo, Bourscar (1979) a signalé l'espèce sous le nom Phrynomerus microps, mais Dubois (1988) a établi que le nom valide de l'espèce est Phrynomanis microps Peters, 1875, le nom générique Phrynomerus proposé par Noble (1926) étant un synonyme objectif plus récent de Phrynomanis Peters, 1867.

Famille PIPIDAE Gray, 1825

Sous-famille Dactylethrinae Hogg, 1838

Siluruna tropiculis Gray, 1864. L'espèce est largement répandue dans les forêts humides et les savanes en contact avec les zones de forêt ou les galeries forestières en Áfrque. Sa présence est signalée en Côte d'Youre, au Ghana, au Tôgo, au Benin, au Nigeria et au Burkina Fasso (RÓDIL, 2000 40) BOURGAT (1979) a signalé l'espèce sous le nom Xenopus tropiculis, mais selon CANNATH-LA & TRUEB (1988) cette espèce doit être placee dans le genre Silurana Gray, 1864 Xenopus muelleri (Peters, 1844). – L'espèce présente une large distribution dans toute l'Afrique sud-saharienne. Elle a été signalée au Togo par BOURGAT (1979) et dans la monographie sur la biodiversité (ANONYME, 2002). Elle est connue dans les autres pays de la sous-région comme la Côte d'Ivoire, le Ghana. le Bénin et le Niperia (RÖDFIL 2000, 42).

Famille RANIDAE Rafinesque-Schmaltz, 1814

Sous-famille CONRAUINAE Dubois, 1992

Comuna derooi Hulselmans, 1972 Les spécimens décrits par HULSELMANS (1972) ont été collectés dans la forêt de Missahohoé dans la région de Kloto au Togo. Au cours des travaux de Rôdel. & Acyte (2003: 224) et de Leacrié et al. (2006), des spécimens de l'espèce provenant aussi de Missahohoé ont été examinés BOURGAT (1979) et KULO (1980) ont également signalé la présence de l'espèce au Togo. Des parasites ont été identifies sur des spécimens collectés dans la zone écologique IV du pays

Sous-famille DICROGLOSSINAE Anderson, 1871

Hoplobatrachus occipitulas (Gunther, 1859). - L'espèce présente une large distribution dans toute l'Afrique, de l'Afrique du Nord (Algèrie, Libye) jusqu'au Mozambique et en Angola. Sa présence au Togo a été signalée par RODEL (2000), ANON-NE (2002), RODEL & ACYEL (2003) et LEACHÉ et al. (2006). Les travaux de BOURGAT (1979, 601) indiquent une distribution de l'espèce sur l'ensemble des zones écologiques du pass.

Sous-famille PHRYNOBATRACHINAE Laurent, 1941

Phrymobatruchus accruentus (Ahl. 1925). – Guiße & LAMOTTE (1963) considéraient les noms suivants comme des synonymes de P accruentus 'Is larthroleptus alholabris Ahl, 1924, Phrymobatrachus latifrons togeensis Ahl, 1924 et Phrymobatrachus latifrons togeensis Ahl, 1924 et Phrymobatrachus paragoensis Loveridge, 1955. Les types de Phrymobatrachus latifrons togeensis Ahl, 1924 derrip par All. 1924 horit et mis en synonymie de Phrymobatrachus latifrons Ahl, 1924 (BARBOUR & LOVERIDGE, 1946. 169) avant d'être rangée sous P accruentus (Guiße & LAMOTTE, 1963). La synonymie de Platfrons avec P accruentus et été récemment confirmée par des analyses générques réalisées par ROBL& AGYLI (2003). Des specimens de l'espèce ont été collectés par Buurgara (1979) dans diffrentes localités, notamment Bassar, Kovié, Toblékopé et Wahala, ce qui témogne de la distribution de l'espèce sur l'ensemble du pays (dans le sud comme dans le nord). Les récents travaux de Lacrif et al (2006) ont indiqué la présence de l'espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana, Celle-ci présenterait une distribution sous-répondos par les productions de l'espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana, Celle-ci présenterait une distribution sous-répondos par les parts de l'agrade dans la conformation de l'espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana. Celle-ci présenterait une distribution sous-répondos par les parts de l'agrade dans la conformation de l'espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana. Celle-ci présenterait une distribution sous-répondos par les parts de l'agrade dans la conformation de l'espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana. Celle-ci présenterait une distribution sous-répondos l'espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana. Celle-ci présenterait une distribution sous-répondos l'espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana.

Phymohatrachus calcumtus (Peters, 1863) Cette espéce est présente en Afrique de l'ouest et en Afrique centrale Rouel. & Acyte (2003) l'ont signalée dans les zones frontalières entre le Togo et le Ghana. La prèsence de l'espèce au Togo a eté également rapportée par Bourgo.T (1979) et Bourgoat et al (1996-389). Des spécimens de l'espèce ont eté collectés à Atakpamé (zone IV) au cours de ces travaux. Lacréi et al (2006) ont mentionné sa presence dans la zone forestéére entre le Togo et le Ghana. Phrynobatrachus sp. aff. calcaratus, sensu RÖDEL & AGYEI (2003) Selon RÓDEL & AGYEI (2003), cette forme est similaire à P. calcaratus mass s'en distingue par des différences morphologiques et de couleur. Des travaux sont en cours pour déterminer son statut taxinomique. Elle a été trouvée dans la zone forestière que partagent le Togo et le Ghana.

Phrynobatrachus franciscr Boulenger, 1912. BOURGAT (1979) a signalé cette espèce au Togo. RODEL & AGVEI (2003) ont confirmé sa présence dans la région de la Volta à la frontière entre le Togo et le Ghana.

Phrymobatrachus guttuvosus (Chabanaud, 1921). P guttuvosus est une espèce ouest-africaine (RODLL, 2000: 163), identifice en Côte d'Ivoire, au Ghana, au Nigeria et probablement au Malt. Elle présente une distribution plus large jusqu'en Guinée (Rôuet et al., 2004). Rôdet. & AGYEI (2003) ont indiqué sa présence dans la même zone que P sp aff calcaratus. La présence de l'espèce au Togo a éte également signalée par BOURGAT (1979).

Phrynobatrachus natalensis (Smith, 1849). – L'espèce est commune dans toutes les savanes africaines au sud du Sahara. Des spècimens ont également été collectés au Togo (BOLRGAT, 1979; RÓDEL, 2000. 174). Tout récemment LEACHÉ et al. (2006) ont indiqué sa presence dans les savanes associées à la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana.

Phrynobatrachus pheatus (Günther, 1849). RÖDFL & AGYEI (2003) et LEACHÉ et al. (2006) ont confirmé la présence de l'espèce dans la région de la Volta à la frontière entre le Togo et le Ghana. Tout comme P natulensir, l'espèce avait déjà éte signalée au Togo par BOURGAT (1979), à partir de spécimens collectés dans la région de Kpalimé.

Sous-famille PTYCHADENINAE Dubois, 1987

Hildebrandtua ornata (Peters, 1878). L'espèce est commune dans les savanes africaines Sa présence au Togo a été confirmée par BOURGAT (1979, 598) et RODIT (2000, 84). Elle a été signalée en Côte d'Ivoire, au Nigeria et tout récemment au nord du Bénin (NAGO et al., 2006)

Ptychadena acquiplicata (Werner, 1898). La présence de l'espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana a été récemment rapportée par Roirt. & ACY11 (2003). L'espèce présente une distribution plus large en Afrique de l'ouest et en Afrique centrale (Rôi) L et al., 2002)

Prichadena hibrora (Hallowell, 1845) – Cette espece présente une large distribution dans tout le pays et dans la sous-région ouest-africaine. Des spécimens de l'espèce ont été collectés à Lomé, Kovié et Kanté au cours des travaux de Bourgar (1979). Des spécimens provenant de Lomé (MNHN 1999 662) et Kandé (MNHN 1999 662-675), donc collectés dans le sud et dans le nord, sont conservés au Muséum de Pars (LAMOITE & OUTLET, 1997). 350, L'espèce été signalee dans la monographie sur la biodiversite au Togo (ANONYM, 2002). Les travaux de Roba Le Acyt (2003) et Li Actié et al. (2006) ont indique une distribution de celle-ci dans la zone écologique IV du pays.

Ptychadena longmostry (Peters, 1870). Cette espèce a ete signalee dans la monographie sui la biodiversite au Togo (Anonyu, 2002). Ce sont suitout les travatux de Kuto (1981) qui ont confirmé sa présence au Togo. Les spécimens de Kuto (1981) out été collectés à M'Pout dans l'Adélé (zone écologique IV). Selon RÖDEL (2000: 114), l'espèce présente une distribution allant de la Sierra Leone au Nigeria

Plychadena mascareniemist (Duméril & Bibron, 1841). La présence de l'espèce dans les zones écologiques II et IV du Togo a été récemment signalée par Rôpei. & Acyte (2003). Plychadena hylaea (Schmidt & Inger, 1959), synonyme de Plychadena mascareniemis (Duméril & Bibron, 1841) selon Rôpei. (2000): 128), a été signalée dans la monographie sur la biodiversité au Togo (ANONYME, 2002). Des spécimens de l'espèce collectés à Lomé ont été rapportés par BONGAT. (1979) sous le nom P. hylaea. Kuro (1980) a identifié des parasites sur des spécimens de cette espèce collectés au Togo. Selon Vincies et al. (2004), ce taxon comporte un complexe d'espèces dont le statut taxinomique reste à clarifier. Ces auteurs confirment que le taxon P mascaremensis comprend diverses espèces de grenouilles présentes au Madagascar et aux Seychelles, qui sont différentes de celles présentes sur le contient.

Plychadena oxyrhynchus (Smith, 1849). – Les travatux de Rôdet (2006: 118), Rôdes, & AGYEI (2003) et Leactife et al. (2006) ont indiqué la présence de l'espèce au Togo. Selon BOURGAT (1979), des spécimens ont été collectés à Kovié et à Lomé L'espèce serait essentiellement distribuée dans les zones écologiques III, IV et V du pays. Elle est également signalée dans la monographie sur la biodiversité du Togo (ANONYME, 2002).

Ptychadena pumilio (Boulenger, 1920) La présence de l'espèce dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana a été signalée par RÖDEL & AGYEI (2003) et Lecrété et al. (2006), Celle-ci présente une distribution dans les zones écologiques 1 et II du pays. BOURGAT (1979) et BOURGAT et al (1996) ont indiqué sa présence à Dapaong et à Kanté (zone écologique I).

Ptychadena tellinii (Peracca, 1904). Cette espèce a été signalée par RODEL & AGYEI (2003) dans la zone forestière entre le Togo et le Ghana. Elle a également été signalée dans le nord Bénin (Nago et al., 2006). Ptycahdena huguettue Inger, 1968, synonyme de P. tellinu selon LARGEN (2001), a été signalée au Togo par BOURGAT (1979).

Ptychadena tournieri (Guibé & Lamotte, 1955). Cette espèce a été signalée au Togo par BOURGAT (1979). Elle a également éte signalée en Côte d'Ivoire par Lamotte (1967) et Rôde. (2000-133), et au Bénin par Nago et al. (2006). C'est une espèce commune des savanes ouest-africaines.

Ptychadena trinadis (Boettger, 1881) Tout comme pour P tournueri, ce sont les travaux de Bousgart (1979) qui ont indiqué la présence de cette espèce au Togo. Celle-ci a ègalement été signalée en Côte d'Ivoire, au Ghana, au Nigeria (Ròpeil, 2000, 124) et au Bénin (Nago et al., 2006). Il s'agit aussi d'une espèce commune des savanes africaines

Sous-famille PYXICEPHALINAE Bonaparte, 1850

Aubrus subsigillata (Dumeril, 1856). La présence de l'espèce au Togo a été signalée par BOURGAT (1979), KUIO (1980, 1981), OHLER & KAZADI (1989) et OHLER (1996). Des colloc tions de référence en provenance de Koivé (Togo) sont disponibles au Muséum de Paris (OHLER, 1996, 145) sous les numéros MNHN 1989,2050, 1989 2053-2054, 1989 2056, 1993,1462, 1993 1469 et 1993,1966. Sous-famille RANINAE Rafinesque-Schmaltz, 1814

Ammuna alholubris (Hallowell, 1856). L'espèce a été signalée au Togo par BOURGAT (1979) et KULO (1980: 35), sur la base de spécimens collectés a Kloto et à Kovié. RODEL & AGVEI (2003. 214) Tont mentionnée dans la région de la Volte au Ghana et dans la région de Kloto et d'Adélé au Togo LEACHÉ et al. (2006) ont uniqué sa présence dans la même region. Cette espèce a été aussi collectée par BRINGOWE (1995) au Togo vers la frontière avec le Ghana

Amurana galamensa (Dumeril & Bhron, 1841) La présence de l'espèce au Togo a été signalée par Boucaca (1979, 604), dans la monographie sur la bodiversité au Togo (Aboneva, 1979), 604), dans la monographie sur la bodiversité au Togo (Aboneva, 2002) et par Ródel. & Agyer (2003). Des spécimens ont été collectés à Kovié, Tové, Kloto, Bassar et Lome, ce qui témoigne la distribution de l'espèce dans toutes les zones écologiques du pays. Elle est presente dans les zones II et IV du Togo le long de la frontiere avec le Ghana. Lexcrife et al. (2006) ent indiqué sa présence dans même région. Sa distribution comprend la Côt d'Ivoire, le Ghana, le Bénni et le Nigeria (Róden, 2009). Naco et al., 2006).

ESPÈCES DONT LA PRÉSENCE AU TOGO EST PROBABLE

Nous n'avons retenu dans cette liste que les espèces dont la présence a été signalée à la fois en Côte d'Ivoire et/ou au Ghana et au Bénin et/ou au Nigeria. Nous avons également retenu des espèces signalées par Rodri. & AGYEI (2003) comme faisant partie des espèces qui peuvent être rencontrées dans la région de la Volta que partagent le Togo et le Ghana. Ont également éter insi à contribution pour et ravail de recensement des espèces dont la présence est probable au Togo, les travaux de SCHIOTZ (1963, 1964, 1999). LAMOTTE & OHLER (2000), RÖDEL (2000), LEACHÉ (2005), RÖDEL et al. (2005) et NAGO et al. (2006). Au total, dix espèces ont été retenues sur plus d'une quarantaine d'espèces ouest-africaines Il s'agit d'une espèce de Gymonphinon, Gostriyetes xeraphini (Duméni, 1859), et de 14 espèces d'Anoures. Afrivalus ingerensis Schiotz, 1963, Bufo superchiaris Boulenger, 1888; Chiromantis rufescens (Gunther, 1869). Leptopelis occidentalis Schiotz, 1967, Philicimanus boulengert Petret, 1986; Phirmohattachus ullem Parket, 1936; Ammana occidentalis (Petret, 1960); Pi vicephulus edulus Peters, 1854, Tomonteura croutoits (Boulenger, 1907).

L'espèce Hyperolnus latteeps All, 1931 a été signalée dans la zone forestière du Togo. Les specimens de cette espèce décrits par Alt, 11931 3-42) sont conserves au ZMB (numéros non précisés) Aucun autre spécimen d'origine différente n'a été decrit. Cette espece nominale n'a jusqu'à présent été recense un prise en compte dans aucune revision taxinomique des Amphibiens de la region II convient d'analyser les types de cette espece et de les comparer avec des spécimens des espècimens des la pressat (Masteile, 1893) à été signalée du Togo Wikhiens (1898 201) à décrit uns specimen collècte à Bismarckburg dans la region d'Adélé sous le nouveau nom d'Actopus adricums, conodéré actuellement comme un synonyme de W pressa (1908, 1852 al); de Asuri, 1972, 1976) Amir (1972–122) à indique que l'origine Bismarckburg (Togo) du specimen de Wikhien (1898) était erronée Ce spécimen est conservé a Vienne sous le numéro NIMM 20095 Actuellement, il n'est pas chier qu'une espèce du gence Werneurs ost présente au Togo. Si cela devait être le cas, il pourrait s'agir de W pressas (ou d'une espèce districtife, W africamos, ou serant endémique du Togo (Rout) et al. 20044.

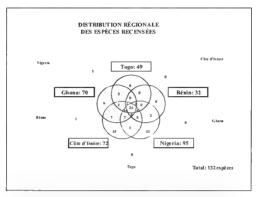


Fig. 2. Distribution régionale connue des espèces d'Amphibiens. Une seule espece présente une distribution commune entre Togo, le Ghana et le Nigeria et entre la Côte d'Ivorre, le Ghana et le Bénn Aucune espèce n'est commune entre la Côte d'Ivorre, l'Eopo et le Benin, mentre le Togo, le Nigeria et la Côte d'Ivorre et entre le Ghana, le Bénin et le Nigeria

Les espèces comme Rappia marmorata var marginata Bocage, 1895 (synonyme de Hyperolins marmoratus Rapp, 1842 selon LACRENT, 1952), Ptychadena taemoscehs Laurent, 1954 et Hyperoline paralleluk (Bocage, 1871), signalées dans la monographie sur la biodiversité au Togo (Anonyme, 2002), sont des espèces de l'Afrique centrale et de l'Afrique du Sud. En ce qui concerne Hyperoline occidentales Schiotz, 1967, cette espece présente en revanche une distribution plus occidentale (de la Sierra Leone au Sénégal).

ESPÈCES SIGNALÉES DANS LA SOUS-RÉGION

En plus des espèces signalées ou probablement presentes au Togo, nous nous sommes intéresses aux espèces d'Amphibiens dont la présence est signalée dans les autres pays de la sous-region, en particulier la Côte d'Ivoire, le Ghana, le Bénin et le Nigeria. La figure 2 présente la distribution des espèces d'Amphibiens que nous avons pur recenser suivant la

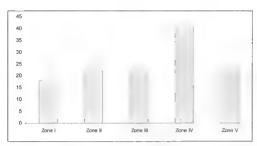


Fig 3 Distribution connue des espèces d'Amphibiens suivant les zones écologiques du pays. X nombre d'espèces; Y, zones écologiques.

bibliographie disponible entre ces cinq pays de la sous-région ouest-africaine. Au total, cent-trente-deux espèces ont été recensées dont 72 en Côte d'Ivoire, 70 au Ghana, 32 au Bénin et 95 au Nigeria. Vingt-quaitre espèces présentent une distribution commune entre les cinq pays. Quarante-trois espèces sont signalées uniquement au Nigeria, 15 en Côte d'Ivoire et six espèces au Ghana

DISTRIBUTION DES ESPÈCES SIGNALÉES AU TOGO

Il est trop tôt pour pré-enter une distribution sur l'ensemble du pays des espèces d'Amphibiens signalées au Togo. Cependant, dans ce trovail prélimitaire, il nous semble intéressant de signaler les zones de distribution des espèces recensées. Les espèces comme Africalus vitinger, Il perolius gutrulaire, Il concolor, Budo regularis, Ils maculaires, Hemisus munimoratus, Hophobarration soc epitalis, Phrimobatrachis accentents, P colaratte, Prechadra mascurenense, P châron, P pinnilio et Animania gulamenso présentent une large distribution sur tout le pays. Plus de 84 · des espèces recensées sont présentent une large distribution sur tout le pays. Plus de 84 · des espèces recensées sont présentent une large distribution sur tout le pays. Plus de 84 · de espèces recensées sont présentes dans la zone écologique IV, le sud-ouest de la zone écologique IV, le sud-ouest de la zone écologique IV, le sud-ouest de la zone écologique II (fig. 3). Il s'agut essentiellement de la région de Kloto et d'Adele, et du Mont Alédjo selon Roues. & ACVII (2003) Et La ACII et al. (2006). En ce qui concerne la zone écologique III et toute la partie est du pays, peu de données sont fournes sur la faune d'Amphibiens en raison de l'absence d'inventaire au Tose et au Bénin.

Cinq espèces d'Amphibiens sont endémiques de la zone forestière que partagent le Togo et le Ghana Ce sont. Arthroleptis brevipes, Comaua derooi, Hi penolius baumanni, H. torrentis

et Phrynobatrachus aff. calcaratus. Les facteurs liés à cet endémisme des espèces d'Amphibiens pourraient être attribués à la discontinuité de la forêt dense et humide au sud du Ghana et du Nigeria qui devenet clairsemée au sud du Togo et du Bénin, il s'agit de la "trouée du Benin ou Dahomey Gap" (BOOTH, 1958; MONDJANNAGNI, 1969, JENIK, 1994; SALZMANN & HOELZMANN, 2005). Les travaux ultérieurs devraient permettre d'apporter des eléments de réponse à cette question

Parmi les espèces d'Amphibens recensées au Togo, certaines sont savamcoles: Africalus vritiger, Bulo pentoni, Hemisus marmoratus, Hildebrandita ornata, Leptopelis vurdas, Pluvnomants microps, Pivichadena tellum, P. oxyrhinchas, P. hibrom, P. pamilo et Xenopus muelleri D'autres sont infécidées aux zones forestueres. Ce sont celles qui présentent une distribution dans la zone écologique IV. Nous citerons notamment: Arthroleptis brevipes, A. poeculonotus, B. togoensis, Siluranta tropiculas, Conviena derooi, Plychadena longirostris. En plus des formes savanicoles ou forestères, il convient de souligner que la plupart des espèces d'Amphibiens sont aquatiques ou subaquatiques. La grande majorité a un développement larvaire strictement lié au milieu aquatique sauf Arthroleptis poeculonotus dont le développement est direct à partir des œuis pondus dans le sol humide (Barbault & Trefaut Rodrius, 1979, Lamotte & Perrett. 1963).

DISCUSSION ET CONCLUSION

Le Togo presente une faune d'Amphibiens plus ou moins diversifiée. Au total, a ce jour 49 espèces d'Amphibiens représentant un seul ordre, celui des Anoures, ont été recensées Si nous considerons les espèces dont la présence est probable, le nombre d'espèces du pays serait de l'ordre de 59. Un deuxième ordre, celui des Gymnophiones, pourrait être présent avec un seul representant: Geotrypetes seraphun (Duméril, 1859) (famille Caecilidae Rafinesque-Schmaltz, 1814, sous-famille Caecilinae Rafinesque-Schmaltz, 1814)

Malgré cette diversité relativement intéressante pour le pays, l'inventaire systématique de la faune des Amphibiens reste loin d'être achevé au Togo. Les travaux de Bourgar (1979). RÖDEL & AGYEL (2003) et LEACHÉ et al. (2006) indiquent la présence, dans la zone forestière et dans les zones de savane du Togo, d'espèces appartenant aux genres Hyperolus, Hemisus, Arthrolentis et Phrynobatrachus dont le statut (axinomique reste incertain, Cette zone malheureusement soumise au phénomène de la fragmentation des écosystèmes forestiers (Adjos-SOU, 2004; KOKOU et al. 2006) reste encore sous-inventoriée. Il v subsiste néanmoins des reliques forestieres dans les montagnes d'Agou, de Kouma et de Danyi ainsi que sur les plateaux d'Akposso-Akébou et d'Adélé qui peuvent receler des espèces intéressantes pour la faune d'Amphibiens du pays. En dehors de la zone IV, on note dans les zones écologiques II et III des fragments de forêts qui sont moins degradés que ceux du sud du pays (Kokou et al... 1999). Ces milieux n'ont jusqu'alors pas été concernes par un inventaire des Amphibiens ni même de l'ensemble de l'herpétofaune. Enfin, le complexe du parc national Ou-Keran, situé dans la zone écologique I avant subi plus de 50 ° de la reduction de sa superficie au cours des années 1990 (Anonymi, 2002), pourra fournir des informations scientifiques interessantes sur l'herpétofaune du pays. Il est probable qu'un grand nombre d'espèces signalées au Ghana, en Côte d'Ivoire, au Bénin et au Nigeria pourraient être retrouvées au Toyo. La réalisation d'une campagne de collecte dans les fragments de forêts et les ilôts forestiers sur l'ensemble du pays pourrait apporter des éléments nouveaux pour la connaissance des espèces d'Amphibiens du Togo. Nous présumons qu'un grand nombre de taxons décrits dans les pays limitrophes, ou de nouveaux taxons, pourraient être découverts.

Malheureusement, nous avons des inquiétudes quant à l'exploitation commerciale actuelle de l'herpétofaune de cette région de l'Afrique, à destination de l'Europe et des Etats-Unis, notamment comme nouveaux animatux de compagnie (AFFRE et al., 2005). Aussi, en raison de la dégradation actuelle des habitats dont dépendent ces espèces animales (AKFRANAN, 1989, ANONYME, 2002; AKPANON, 2003; ADDSSOU, 2004), nous craignons que des espèces d'Amphibients du Togo et de l'ensemble de cette région l'Afrique disparaissent sans même avoir été récollées et décrites.

Résumé

Les travaux de la monographie sur la biodiversité ont établi que trente-neuf espèces d'Amphibiens étaient recensées au Togo. Nous présentons ici une liste plus complète des espèces signalées au Togo avec la bibliographie disponible. Nous avons retiré de la liste de la monographie dix espèces dont le statut ou la présence au Togo est incertaine: Anmirana occidentaits, Hyperollius marmoratus, H. parallelus, H. occidentaits, H. Intientes, Psychodena taemoscelus, Phrynobarachus latifrons, Couraua alleni, Bufo superciliars et Werneria preussi. Vingt nouvelles espèces sont incluses dans la nouvelle liste des Amphibens du Togo. Arthroleptis poecilonotus, Afrixalus wittiger, A. wediholci, Hyperolius guitulatus, H. nitulalus, H. sylvaticus, Kassina cassinoides, K. fusca, Leptopelis bufondes, L. hylodes, Phrynobartachus calcaratus, P. aff. colcaratus, P. francrice, P. guiturosus, P. plentus, H. diebrandia ornata, Psychadena aequiplicata, P. tellinti, P. toumneri, P. trenodis. La distribution des espèces sur l'ensemble du pays indique que la zone écologique IV (sud du pays) présente une plus grande richesse spécifique par rapport aux quatre autres zones ecologiques. Toutefois, cos résultats restent encore préliminaires et des travaux sont en cours sur l'ensemble de la faune herpétologique du Togo

REMERCIEMENTS

Nos sneères remercements vont au Service de Coopération et d'Action Culturelle (SCAC) de l'Ambassaide de Férance au Topo pour le soutien financer qu'il a accordé au premer autreur fors de son siage de formation en France. Nos remercements vont aussi particulièrement au Professeur Koffi Akpagina (Laboratoire de Botanque et Ecologie Végétale Appliqué de l'Université de Lome, Topo) pour les conseils scentifiques et tout le soutien moral et logistique qu'il ne cresse de nous apporter Noss voulons sincrement tremcreure le Dr. Mart-Oliver Rodel (Departement of Annual Ecology and Topopa.) Biology, Biocentier of the University, Wurzburg, Allemagnej pour sa lecture soigneuse de notre tran-alet les informations qu'il nous « donness. Nous voulons signement remerciere le Dr. Sim-Dezoix Kilo, enseignant retraite au Département de Zoologie et Biologie Animale de la Faculte des Sciences de l'Université de Lomé, pour avoir mis sa documentation à notre disposition.

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Morfología larval de Chiasmocleis panamensis, con comentarios sobre la variabilidad morfológica interna en renacuajos de Microhylidae (Anura)

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The tadpole of Chiasmocleis panamensis is described, analyzing external morphology, buccal cavity, cartilaginous skeleton and musculature. The external morphology is similar to that of other species in the genus, with mouth devoid of keratinized structures, labia flaps, spatulate lower lip, unperforated nares and ventral spiracle. The buccal cavity shows characters shared with other microhylide; postnarial papillae, absence of lingual papillae, buccal roof and floor with scarce papillation, excepting tall papillae on both sides of the glottis, which is far anteriorly disposed, appellae on both sides of the glottis, which is far anteriorly disposed, the period of the manufacture of the processes, long urobranchial process, and the peculiar configuration of the mm. mandibulolishils, intermodibularis, interhyoideus, suspensoriohyoideus, are frequent within Microhylidae. Distinctive characters are the reduction of the crists parotica and the ventrolateral process of the palatoquadrate, the crossing of the fibers of the m. levator arcturum branchialium III, and the presence of a second ventral sip in the m. subarroundirs rectus 1. Traits such as the absence of baccal keratinized tissue, indicate a suspension feeding habit:

Introducción

La información sobre los renacuajos del género Chaismoeleis es muy escasa; menos de la cuarta parte de 18 especies conocidas cuentan con descripciones de la larva. Con respecto a la morfología interna, los datos son casi nexistentes, y el único trabajo disponible refiere al condrocráneo y esqueleto visceral de Chaismoeleis leta ostria (LAVILLA & LANGONE, 1994).

Chasmocleis panamensis es una especie muy poco conocida, a pesar de su actual ubduidad, y hasta el momento no existe información alguna sobre su renacuajo El propósito de este trabajo es contribuir al conocimiento de la morfología de las larnas de miscohado, resentando una descripción de la morfología externa, cavidad bucal, esqueleto cartilaginoso i musculatura de Chasmocleis panaments, y luego comparando con información disponible bara otras especies de la familia.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

Se trabajó con 15 renacuajos de Chiasmocleis panamensis, en estadios 29-30 (n = 7) v 34-36 (n = 8) de la tabla de Gosner (1960). Las larvas fueron colectadas en un ambiente seminermanente (Gamboa, Panamá: Julio 2001), y fueron fuadas en formol 10 %. Especímenes intactos fueron depositados en la Colección Herpetológica de la Fundación Miguel Lillo (FML 16470). La cavidad hucofaringea se estudió exponiendo piso y techo de la boca según Wassersug (1976a), y coloreando con azul de metileno para destacar las estructuras presentes. Un especimen fue adicionalmente preparado para Microscopía Electrónica de Barrido, según la técnica propuesta por Fiorito de López & Echeverría (1984). El protocolo consiste en una deshidratación en una serie creciente de alcoholes antes de proceder a la desecación al vacío y nunto crítico. Se siguió a ALTIG & McDIARMID (1999) en la caracterización de la morfología del disco oral y de la cavidad bucofaringea. Para el estudio de condrocráneo y esqueleto hiobranquial se aplicaron técnicas de transparentación y tinción diferencial para cartilago y hueso (Wassersug, 1976b). Para el estudio de la musculatura se aplicó el protocolo de Wassersug (1976b) modificado según Lavilla (comunicación personal), interrumpiendo el procesamiento antes de la inmersión en glicerol, y coloreando luego en solución de lugol (BÖCK & SHEAR, 1972). Con esto se logra un contraste entre músculos y cartílagos que permite definir claramente los sitios de inserción. La nomenclatura empleada para identificar estructuras músculo-esqueléticas sigue a HAAS (2003). Las disecciones e ilustraciones subsecuentes se efectuaron utilizando una lupa equipada con cámara clara.

RESULTADOS

MORFOLOGÍA FATERNA

Los renacuajos de Charvinocleis panamiento estudiados (n = 9, estadios 29-30 y 34-36; fig. 1) presentan un cuerpo deprimido y ovalado, con ancho maximo al nível de los ojos. La coloración de los ejemplares preservados es marrón rojara en el dorso y musculatura caudat, con una línea blanca longitudinal en la base de la cola; el vientre es transparente, con cromátoforos dispuestos uniformemente, exceptiando algunas regiones que permanecen transfuedas. Las aletas son tambien transparentes, con grupos de cromatóforos esporádicos. En los estadios 34-36 la coloración se intensifica, manteniendo el patrón descripto. El hocico es semicircular, y las narinas no están abiertas. La boca es terminal, con una hendidura que carece de disco oral y estructuras queratinizadas. Dos plegues labules superiores muy pigientados, con una escoadaura mareada, penden y cubren el labio inferior El labio inferior El labio inferior es espatulado y transificido. Los ojos son pequeños y dispuestos lateralmente. El tubo espuracular es largo, ancho en la base, y esta localizado medial y caudalmente, cubriendo el tubo proctodual. Este es delgado y conico, con una abertura redondeada. La cola presenta un que recto y extremo acuminado. Desde la base hasta aproximadamente la mitad, se distingue una masa de terilog eruses y resistente, más notoro en los estados posteriores (34-36) la gua man asa de terilog eruses y resistente, más notoros en los estados posteriores (34-36) las

Tab. 1. – Medidas externas (en mm) de Chiasmocleis panamensis (n 7; estadios 29-30), x, media: s. desviación estándar

| Medida | x (s) | |
|--|--------------|--|
| Longitud del cuerpo | 5,86 (0,26) | |
| Longitud total | 14,57 (0,63) | |
| Ancho máximo | 4,86 (0,14) | |
| Altura máxima | 3,45 (0,17) | |
| Longitud de la cola | 8,71 (0,49) | |
| Altura de la aleta caudal | 3,49 (0,18) | |
| Altura de la musculatura caudal (nivel de la base) | 1,47 (0,11) | |
| Diámetro del ojo | 0,68 (0,03) | |
| Distancia interorbital | 3,84 (0,17) | |
| Distancia rostro-ocular | 1,59 (0,1) | |
| Ancho de los pliegues labiales | 1,47 (0,14) | |
| Longitud del tubo espiracular | 1,24 (0,16) | |
| Ancho del tubo espiracular | 2,02 (0,17) | |
| Longitud del tubo proctodeal | 0,69 (0,65) | |
| Ancho del tubo proctodeal | 0,16 (0,15) | |

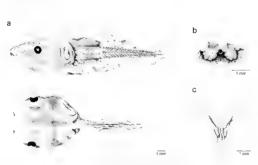


Fig. 1. Morfologia externa de Chiasmock is panamenis, estadio 34 (a) Vista completa, lateral y dorsal (b) Detalle de la boca, vista frontal (c) Detalle del tubo espiracular, vista ventral.

aletas en conjunto presentan una altura máxima similar a la altura del cuerpo, y se afinan caudalmente. La aleta ventral es ligeramente más alta que la dorsal. La tabla 1 muestra un resumen de las medidas rezistradas para larvas en estadio 29-30.

CAVIDAD BUCAL

El techo de la cavidad bucal de los renacuajos estudiados (n - 4; estadio 36; fig. 2-3) no está pigmentado. La arena prenarial contiene una unica papila de punta bífida. Las coanas son de gran tamaño, subcirculares, y no están perforadas. Desde el margen posterior interno de cada una, se provecta una papila postnarial muy desarrollada, plana y con varias puntas. Una papila bifida se provecta medialmente desde el margen lateral, acompañada por escasas panilas baias. El pliegue mediano es tres veces más alto que largo, triangular, y presenta un margen irregular. Detrás del pliegue hay numerosas pústulas y escasas papilas localizadas lateralmente. El límite nosterior del techo de la cavidad bucal carece de provecciones marginales. El margen anterior del piso de la boca está expandido y el labio inferior tiene forma de U Cada cartilago de Meckel presenta pústulas sobre la cara posterior El esbozo lingual es pequeño y carece de papilas linguales. Las hendiduras bucales están muy desarrolladas, con dos papilas prehendidura y pústulas provectándose desde el margen anterior. La glotis está ligeramente elevada en relación con la arena del piso de la boca. A cada lado hay papilas altas y conicas, aproximadamente siguiendo una disposición en V abierta. Entre ellas aparecen algunas pústulas. El velo esta muy desarrollado y expandido posteriormente. Está dividido por una escotadura media profunda. y presenta un epitelio glandular conspicuo.

ESOUELETO

El condrocráneo de las larvas estudiadas (n = 5, estadios 35-36, fig. 4) representa el 58 % de la longitud rostro-tubo proctodeal. El ancho maximo es a nivel de la parte posterior del arco subocular. El cartílago labial superior presenta el cuerpo y alas fusionadas en una estructura única con el margen anterior curvado y el margen posterior con una provección medial levemente insinuada. Se fusiona al margen anterior de los cuernos trabeculares, y sólo la porcion lateral de éstos permanece libre. Los cuernos trabeculares corresponden aproxi madamente al 22 15 de la longitud total del condrocráneo, son proporcionalmente anchos y planos. Posteriormente, en el plano trabecular, se distinguen claramente los forámenes olfatorios. Los cartilagos orbitales están desarrollados sólo marginalmente, y la zona central está ocupada por un gran foramen que representa la union de los foramenes optico, oculomotor, troclear y proótico. Las tuenta tectis transversalis y tuenta tectis medialis no están desarrolladas en los estadios estudiados. Las cápsulas óticas son de forma cuadrangular y ocupan 31 4 del largo total del condrocráneo. La fenestra oval es visible desde una vista ventral y lateral. Sus dimensiones alcanzan 37 " del total de la cápsula. El piso de la cavidad crancal es completamente cartilaginoso y el canal de la notocorda penetra un 20 \, del total del condrocraneo. El foramen craniopalatino es alargado y de mayor tamaño que el carotideo La pars articularis del palatocuadrado es larga y ancha. El proceso muscular esta muy poco desarrollado y presenta un pequeño proceso en la cara ventral, el proceso ventrolateral. El arco subocular es de margen liso y ancho uniforme. Presenta una proyección conspicua, oblonga, plana, v dirigida posterolateralmente, el proceso lateral posterior. En la cara ventral v cerca del extremo existe una provección condrificada, subcilíndrica, con la punta bifurcada, recientemente denominada proceso subótico (processus suboticus quadrati) por HAAS (2003). Los puntos de articulación con el neurocráneo son tres, la comisura cuadradocraneal, que presenta un proceso cuadradoetmoidal poco desarrollado, el proceso ascendente, unido al niso de la cavidad craneal, y el proceso larval ótico. La mandíbula inferior se ubica nernendicularmente al eje del cuerpo. El cartilago de Meckel es una barra con procesos dorsal y retroarticular conspicuos. Los cartilagos infrarostrales están fusionados en una estructura en forma de anillo con una provección laminar en el margen interno de la norción posterior. En el esqueleto hiobranquial, los ceratohiales son elongados y presentan procesos anterior anterolateral (más desarrollado que el anterior), lateral y posterior El proceso lateral está muy desarrollado y posee una provección laminar ancha durgida posteriormente. El proceso posterior está parcialmente cubierto por el ceratobranquial I, y el cóndilo articular se esboza como un engrosamiento en el margen posterior del ceratobial. La cópula I es una barra cartilaginosa muy delgada. La pars reuniens es continua con los ceratohiales y la cópula II. La cópula II es pequeña y porta un proceso urobranquial delgado y muy largo (1,7 veces más largo que la cópula II). Posteriormente la cópula II está fusionada a los hipobranquiales, de márgenes irregulares y fusionados entre sí en la línea media. Los ceratobranquiales están fusionados a los hipobranquiales y conforman una cesta branquial grande y complejamente reticulada Entre los ceratobranquiales II y III se distingue un proceso branquial cerrado. Existen tres espículas diferenciadas a cada lado, y aparentemente la primera de la serie, más ancha que las restantes, representa la fusión completa de las espículas I y II.

MUSCULATURA

Cinco renacuajos fueron estudiados (estados 35-36; fig. 5). En la tabla 2, se listan los músculos de *Chiasmocless panamensis*, detallando sitios de inserción y algunos comentatios

DISCUSIÓN

La familia Microhylidae comprende mas de 400 especies, de las cuales alrededor de 180 . nelluyen en su ontogenia una etapa de renacuajo de vida libre, con o sin alimentación activa. La morfologia externa de las especies cuyas larvas han sido descriptas es considerablemente -urrable, en caracteres como la posición de los ojos, espiraculo y tubo proctodeal, y la configuración de los labos superior e inferior y aleta caudal (Donni-Liv et al., 1990). Chuasmocless panamentos presenta curacterísticas similares a otras especies del género, como cantipes, C. carvalhor y C. ventimaculata (Diellama, 1978; Schillura & Salvas, 1991, en WoGell et al., 2004). cuerpo deprimido y oval, ojos laterales, narinas no perforadas, espiráculo nedio y caudal, y boca terminal con pliegues labiales superiores separados por una escotalura media y labo inferior en forma de U.

Tab 2. - Musculatura de Chiasmocleis panamensis (n ~ 5; estadios 35-36).

| Musculo | Inserciones | Comentarios |
|---|---|--|
| Mandibulolahalis | Region ventromedial del cartilago de Meckel - cara ventrolateral del cartilago labial inferior | Cilindrico y compacto |
| Intermandibulars | Superficie anterior del cartilago de Meckel – aponeurosis media | El musculo tiene forma triangular con vértice hacia atras, y se une a la aponeurosis media del m. <i>interhyoideus</i> , adoptando el conjunto una forma de X |
| Levator mandibulae longus superficialis | Borde posterior del proceso muscalar del palatocuadrado – cara posterior del cartilago de Meckel | |
| Levotor mandibulae longus profundus | Región anterior de la cara dorsal del proceso muscular del palatocuadrado extremo del cartilago fabial superior | Está muy desarrollado |
| Les ator mandibulae aiterniis | Superficie dorsal del arco subocular del palatocuadrado, próximo a su borde interno – extremo del cartilago de Mecke. | La mscroton se da a través de un tendon desarrollado |
| l erator mandihidae externas | Pars articularis del palatocuadrado extremo del cartilago labial > perior | La insercion se da a través de un tendon común con el m. <i>l m l</i> profundus. La rama V ₁ del trigentino tiene una posición ventral respecto de este músculo |
| Levator mandibulae arneularis | Cara dorsal del proceso muscular del palatocuadrado carti ago de Mecke | Es muy corto |
| Suspensoriolivoideus | Region posterior de la cara ventral del proceso lateral posterior del pa atocuadrado – cara dorsal del proceso lateral del ceratohial | Es un musculo muy laxo, conformado por unas pocas fibras |
| Orhitohyaideus | Bordes anterior y dorsal del proceso muscular del palatocuadrado - extremo del ceratolial | Esta poco desarrollado |
| Suspensor nangular is | Superficie ventral del palatocuadrado – proceso retroarticular del cartilago de Mecke | |
| Quadratoungularis | Superficie ventral del palatocuadrado – proceso retroarticular del cartilago de Meckel | Se ubica lateralmente respecto del m suspensorio angularis |
| Hymangularis | Cara dorsal del ceratohial - proceso retroarticular del cartilago de Mecke. | Esta poco desarrollado |
| Internyoudens | Cara ventral del proceso lateral del ceratohial aponeurosis media | Esta formado por fibras paralelas dispuestas transversal y oblicuamente |

| Músculo | Inserciones | Comentarios |
|------------------------------------|---|---|
| Interhyoideus posterior | Camara peribranquial | Muy desarrol.ado, forma una capa continua |
| Gentohvaideus | Superficie posterior ventral del cartuago labial inferior - tejido pròximo a la glandula tiroidea | Es muy delgado, y su inserción posterior es difusa |
| Levator arcuum hranchialium I | Cara ventral del proceso lateral posterior del palatocuadrado, proximo a su borde externo – cara lateral del ceratobranquial I | |
| Levator areain branchialian II | Cara ventral de la capsula ótica y cara ventral del proceso lateral posterior del palatocuadrado, proximo al borde posterior – ceratobranquiales I y II | |
| Levator arcuum branchialium III | Dos haces, contisura terminal II y III punto anterior en la cara ventral del proceso lateral posterior del palatocuadrado, y punto anterior de la cara ventral del proceso mencionado, próximo al borde externo. | El haz medial eruza dorsa mente al lateral, usertándose lateralmente en la cara ventral del proceso lateral posterior |
| Levator arcum branchahum IV | Margen medial del ceratobranquial IV – cara ventral de la cápsula ótica | |
| Constructor branchialis II | Proceso branquial comisura terminal [] | |
| Constructor branchiatis III | Proceso branquial - comisura terminal II | |
| Constructor branchialis IV | Proceso branquial - comisura terminal III | |
| Subarcualis rectus I | Tres haces base del proceso posterior hial espicula I (haz dorsal), ceratobranquial I (haz ventral ₁) y proceso branquial (haz ventral ₂) | El haz ventral ₂ es muy delgado y largo y se origina lateralmente a la base dei proceso posterior hial, en un pequeño proceso dei margen posterior del ceratohial. La maercion del haz ventral sobre el ceratobranquial I es medial respecto de la del haz dorsal |
| Subarenalis rectus II-II | Cara ventromedial de, ceratobranquial IV proceso branquial | |
| Subarcualis rectus II-II lateralis | Region distal del ceratobranquiai IV proceso branquial | |
| Subarcualis obliques | Proceso urobranquial - proceso branquia. | |
| Duphragmatabrum hulis | Peritoneo - ceratobranquial [[] | |
| Rectus cervicis | Perstoneo – proceso branquial | |
| Rectus abdominis | Peritoneo, aproximadamente a la mitad del abdomen – cintura pelvica | |

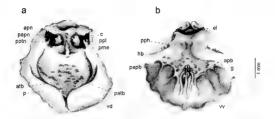
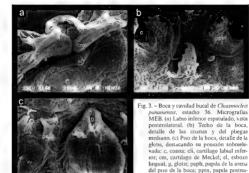


Fig 2 Cavdad bucal de Chiastrocles pomements, estado 36 (a) Techo de la boca, (b) Piso de la boca, app. arena del piso de la boca, app. arena del piso de la boca, app. arena del techo de la boca, aconan, el cesbozo lingual; g, glots, lib, hendidara bucal; p, pistula; paph, papila de la arena del pso de la boca; papin, papila de la arena petenaral; parti, papila de la arena del techo de la boca, pme, piegue mediano; pph, papila pechendidura; ppl, papila del a prima del techo de la boca, pme, piegue mediano; pph, papila pechendidura; ppl, papila del piregue lateral, ppin, papila postmarial; vd, velo dorsal; vv. velo ventral.

La morfología interna en cambio, parece ser relativamente uniforme en la familia, aún cuando la información al respecto es escasa. La cavidad bucofaríngea de Chasmocleis panamensis, por ejemplo, presenta una serie de características comunes en muchas de las especies previamente descriptas: Chaperina fusca, Dermatonotus muelleri, Elachistocleis bicolor, Hypopachus barberi, Microhyla borneensis, M. butleri, M. ornata, M. perparya, M. petrigena, Micryletta steinegeri, Otophryne pyburni, Phrynomantis annectens (Savage, 1955; GRADWELL, 1974: INGER, 1985: WASSERSLIG & PYBLIRN, 1987: CHOU & LIN, 1997: ECHEVERRÍA & LAVILLA, 2000; ULLOA KREISEL, 2003). Son típicas la presencia de una papila o pliegue prenarial, coanas no perforadas con una gran papila o palpo postnarial emergiendo de su margen posterior, papilas prehendidura desarrolladas, papilas linguales ausentes, techo y piso de la boca casi desnudos, con papilas altas bilateralmente dispuestas a ambos lados de la glotis, glotis expuesta y localizada entre las dos secciones del velo ventral muy desarrollado y alargado en sentido anteroposterior (fig. 2-3). Microhyla berdmorei y M. heymonsi, una forma neustónica con boca umbeliforme, presentan una configuración diferente, aunque algunas de las ya mencionadas características comunes en la familia todavía nueden reconocerse, como las papilas linguales ausentes, las papilas prehendidura, las papilas localizadas a ambos lados de la glotis, las narinas no perforadas y con una papila (o en este caso, un pliegue en forma de lengua), y la glotis localizada muy anteriormente (Wassersug, 1980, Chou & Lin, 1997). Por último. Scaphiophrine calcarata presenta también muchas de estas características, acompanadas de caracteres tipo Ranidae, como la configuración de las trampas branquiales (WAS-SERSUG. 1984).

La uniformidad morfológica se registra también a nível de esqueleto cartilaginoso. Si bien la información es escasa, debido al pequeño porcentaje de descripciones de condro-



cráneos disponibles, algunos caracteres han sido propuestos como sinapomorfías a nivel de familia, como el cartilago de Meckel en forma de pala, cartilago accesorio soportando dorsalmente las láminas filtradoras, presencia de procesos lateral posterior del palatocuadrado y subótico (HAAS, 2003). Los renacuajos de C panamensis comparten estos rasgos mencionados, y la configuración general del esqueleto es similar a la de la especie cogenérica C leucosticia (LAVILLA & LANGONE, 1994). Un carácter variable entre los microhilidos conocidos es la presencia del proceso ventrolateral del palatocuadrado (fig. 6). Este proceso está reducido o ausente en los renacuaios de C panamensis analizados en este estudio, en D muelleri (LAVILLA, 1992, observaciones personales), Dyscoplius antongilu, Kaloula pulchra, Paradoxophyla palmata, Phrynomantis bilasciatus (HAAS, 2003), P. annectens (GRADWELL, 1974), M. ornata y Uperodon systoma (Ramaswami, 1940), y es muy largo y desarrollado en E. bicolor (LAVILLA & LANGONE, 1995, HAAS, 2003, observaciones personales), Gastrophrine carolinensis (Wassersug & Hoff, 1982; Haas, 2003) v Hamptophryne boliviana (De Sá & TRUB. 1991: Haas, 2003) Haas (2003) considera la presencia de este proceso como una sinapomorfía de los microhílidos americanos; de ser así, su ausencia en Dermatonotus sería una reversión. Otro carácter con cierta variación es la presencia de una cresta parótica muy desarrollada, en forma de lámina cartilaginosa irregular y parcialmente fenestrada, que se extiende entre la cápsula ótica y la región posterior del palatocuadrado (fia 6). Entre las especies conocidas, esta presente en D muelleri (LAVILLA, 1992, observaciones personales), G.

rial; pme, pliegue mediano, vv. velo ven-

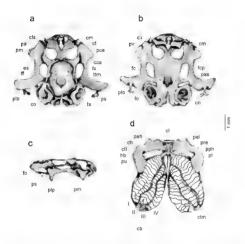


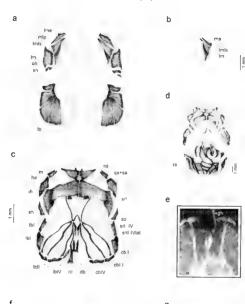
Fig. 4 Esquelcto carthágmoso de Chasamoclos panaments, estado 35 (a) Condrocraneo, vista dará (b) Eondrocrineo, vista viental (c) Condrocraneo, vista lateral (d) Esquelcto hobbaraqual, vista ventral: ss, areo subocular, cbf1 IV), ceratobranquales, cca, comisura cuadradocraneal anterior, ch, ceratobial, cl. cópiela f. cf1, cópiela II, cli, cartilago labal inferior, cls, cartilago labal superior, em, cartilago de Meckel, cn, canal de la notocorda, co, cipisula deba, circuno trabecular, ctm, comisura terminal, fc, foramen caroideo, fcp, foramen craniopalatino, ff, fienestra frontoparied, fo, fienestra oval; fs, fienestra subocular, this, hipobranquali; pa, para structulars, pala, proceso anterior ind., pal, proceso anteriolateral, pas, proceso ascendente, pez, proceso cuadradoctimodal, pl, proceso posterior hal, pre, pura reuniens, ps, proceso subotico, pu, proceso muscular, pph, proceso posterior hal, pre, pura reuniens, ps, proceso subotico, pu, proceso urobranqual, ps, proceso posteriolateral; ties cheo sunotico: Ulm, tenem terti marmandis;

curolmensis (Wassirsug & Hoff, 1982, Haas, 2003), H boliviana (De Sá & Trulb, 1991; Haas, 2003), H. barberi (Sokol, 1975, 1981), K pulchra (Haas, 2003) y O pribarii (Wassirsug & Pyeurn, 1987), y falta en C. panamensis y C leucostic (Lavilla & Langons, 1994), M ornata y C. sistoma (Ramaswami, 1940), y aparentemente Hi popachy y prodosis (Stafe).

RETT. 1968). Los renacuaios de E. bicolor descriptos por HAAS (2003) presentan cresta parótica desarrollada, y en los descrintos nor LAVILLA & LANGONE (1995) y observados personalmente, la cresta no está diferenciada, lo que pone de manifiesto la variabilidad intraespecífica de este carácter (los renacuaios estudiados se encuentran en estadios de desarrollo comparables, por lo que puede descartarse variación ontogenética) Finalmente, en el esqueleto hiobranquial no hay diferencias marcadas en las especies descriptas. Estas formas cuentan con canastillas branquiales muy desarrolladas, que ocupan más de un 70 % del área total del esqueleto hiobranquial, con ceratobranquiales con numerosas provecciones laterales anastomosadas, ceratohiales elongados y con procesos laterales expandidos ventralmente. v un proceso urobranquial muy largo y delgado - excepto en D. antongilis, O. pyburni y Scaphtophryne madaguscariensis (Wassersug, 1984: Haas, 2003), De Sá & Trufb (1991) reportaron diferencias en la forma de la cópula I, en la presencia y relación de la pars reumens con los ceratohiales, y en la presencia de hipobranquiales y espículas. Los renacuajos de Honlonbryne constituyen una excención notable: en ambas especies descriptas. H. rogersi y H. uluguruensis, el esqueleto cartilaginoso está muy modificado, con un notable desarrollo de los cartilagos labiales inferiores y de Meckel, y una marcada reducción de estructuras en el esqueleto hiobranquial, con ausencia de proceso probranquial y ceratobranquiales II-IV (NOBLE, 1929).

Por último, con respecto a la musculatura craneal, las únicas especies en quienes se cuenta con descripciones completas son H rogersi y H. uluguruensis (NOBLE, 1929), P annectens (Gradwell, 1974), v. D. antongilii, E. bicolor, G. carolinensis, H. boliviana, K. pulchra, P. palmata, P. bifasciatus v. S. madagascariensis (HAAS, 2001, 2003). El estudio de HAAS (2003) propone numerosos caracteres musculares como sinapomorfías de la familia, por ejemplo, m. geniohyoideus con origen difuso próximo a la glandula tiroidea, m. suspensoriohyoideus originado muy posteriormente, mm. tympanopharyngeus y leyator mandibulae lateralis ausentes, m. 1 m. externus en un único haz, y mm. del compleio angularis compactos y difíciles de diferenciar. Las larvas de Chiasmocleis panamensis analizadas en este estudio. D. muelleri (observaciones personales) y P. annectens (GRADWELL, 1974), no incluidas en la matriz de Haas (2003), coinciden en estos caracteres, y presentan otros también comunes a la gran mayoría de las especies descriptas, mm. intermandibularis e interhyoideus unidos formando una estructura en forma de X. m. interhyoideus nosterior desarrollado y extenso. inserción del m. mandibulolabialis en el cartílago labial inferior, subarcualis rectus II-IV lateralis presente, y mm. l. m. longus e internus con inserción muy anterior sobre el arco subocular (fig. 5, 7). Lo mismo sucede con las especies estudiadas por STARRETT (1968) (Gastrophryne olivacea, G. usta, H. barberi, H. variolosus, Kaloula borealis, M. butleri, M. heymonsi), al menos en aquellas características de la musculatura mandibular y hiobranquial mencionadas en el trabajo.

La configuración de algunos musculos varía entre las especies conocidas. Por ejemplo, el
m. levitor mandibular longia de D medierr (y de algunas de las especies mencionadas por
STARRETT, 1968) no evidencia división en min. 1 m 1. superticalits y profundas, sino que un
único músculo desarrollado y compacto se extende entre la región anterior de la cara dorsal
y borde posterior del proceso muscular del palatocuadrado, y la cara dorsal del cartilago de
Meckel (fig. 7). El m. suspension indeas se inserta muy posteriormente en todas las especies,
ya sea en la región posterior del palatocuadrado (e.g., Chasmotless, Dermationotas observaciones personales -, Diveophis, Paradoxophila, Phrymonantis, Scaphiophyrue - Hans, I



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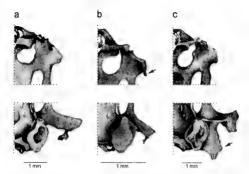


Fig. 6. Condrocráneos de Chiamnocleis panamensis, Elachistocleis bicolor y Dermatomotius muelleri. (a) Chiasmocleis panamensis, estadio 35 (b) Elachistocleis bicolor, estadio 35. (c) Dermatomotius muelleri, estadio 34. Nótese el desarrollo del proceso ventrolateral del palatocuadrado en Elachistocleis, y de la cresta parótica en Dermatomotius (flechas).

2003), o en la cara ventral de la cápsula ótica (e.g., Elachistocleis, Gastrophryne, Hamp tophryne, Kaloula – HAAS, 2003). Con respecto a la musculatura branquial, el m. levator arcum branchialium III tiene una disposición particular en los microhilidos neotropicales revisados por HAAS (2003), y esto se venfica en C panamensis y D muellen Este músculo está dividido claramente en dos porciones, que se cruzan de forma característica, pasando la porción más medial dorsalmente respecto de la lateral, para insertarse lateralmente en la cara ventral del proceso lateral postenor (fig. 5 y 7). El m. subarcualis rectus Ivaria en el número de haces que lo conforman. En Paradoxophyla y Phrymomantis spp existe un único haz, entre la base del proceso postenor hual y la región proximal del ceratobranquial I (HAAS, 2003). En

Fig. 5 Musculatura de Chusamocles ponamensus, estadio 35, (a) Vista dorsal, plano superficial, (b) Vista dorsal, detalle del plano profundo (c) Vista ventral (d) Vista ventral, detalle del m rectura doloriums (c) Vista ventral, detalle del m undere undirectural. Innostrando el segundo haz ventral (f) Vista lateral (g) Vista lateral, detalle del su inserciones de los nun levatores arcunar branchindum FIH y visupervioriloj noluese (chi IVI), contrator branchindus, (b), diaphroginardorium hadis, ha hivongularis, th, unterivocidens, un, untermandibularia, the (t) Vi, levatore arcunar branchindum, lina, levator mandibulare en tengra, ima, levator mandibulare enteriori, ima, levator mandibulare formas, ima, levator mandibulare formas, ima, levator mandibulare formas, capas, quadratorium planta vi superviorium quadratori, on, critoticolorius cq. qu'un su quadratorium quadratorium planta vi superviorium quadratori, que esta dela munic, rec, rectus cervirus, s. h. suspensiorium quadratorium planta vi subarcuarlis rectus. II vi sul IVI vi sul Visuarium servirus. S. vi subarcualis rectus. II vi sul IVI vi sul IVI vi sul IVI vi sul IVI vi sul vi su

Dermatonotus, y renacuajos de Dyscophus, Elachistocless, Gastrophryne, Hamptophryne, Kaloula, y Scaphiophryne revisados por HAAS (2003), el músculo está conformado por dos haces, uno dorsal, inserto en el ceratobranquial I o espícula I, y uno ventral, inserto en la región proximal del ceratobranquial I o ceratobranquial II. Por último, existen tres baces en Chusmocleis v en Elachistocleis (observaciones personales; fig. 5 y 7), con un segundo haz ventral muy delgado, que se extiende desde un nequeño proceso localizado lateralmente al proceso posterior hial hasta el proceso branquial, entre los ceratobranquiales II y III Los renacuajos de Otophryne y Hoplophryne presentan algunas características musculares comunes a los demás microhílidos, acompañadas de rasgos presumiblemente ligados a sus inusuales modos de vida. En Otonbryne pyhurni, por ejemplo, el m. orbitohyouleus está muy desarrollado, y cubre un m. suspensoriohyoideus muy corto, los músculos del compleio ungularis están también muy desarrollados y presentan una disposición inusual, con el m. suspensorioangularis superpuesto al m. hyoangularis, y el m. rectus abdominis es muy largo. alcanzando los ceratohiales en su inserción anterior (WASSERSUG & PYBURN, 1987) Los renacuajos de Hoplophryne presentan algunas características similares a otros microhilidos (mm. intermandibularis e interhyoideus unidos por sus aponeurosis medias, y mm levator mandibulae externus y subgregalis rectus l'en un único haz), pero en otros rasgos, sin embargo. muestran considerables diferencias (mm. mandihulolahialis e interhvoideus posterior ausentes. v m rectus abdominis muy desarrollado, inserto en los ceratobranquiales I). Con la musculatura branquial ocurre algo muy interesante, va que a pesar de la reducción de las estructuras cartilaginosas, la mayoría de los musculos está presente, y sólo hay cambios en los sitios de inserción (v.g., mm. levatores arcuam branchialium I-IV, constructores branchiales II-III) (NOBLE, 1929).

Por último, un breve comentario acerca de cuestiones ecomorfológicas en renacuajos de Microhylidae merece consideración, Siguiendo el trabajo de Altig & Johnston (1989, actualizado en McDiarmio & Al Tig. 1999), se observa que la mayoría de las especies de vida libre y alimentación activa puede ser asignada al gremio de los renacuajos suspensívoros, cuyos representantes obtienen el alimento ingresando grandes cantidades de agua a la cavidad bucal, y reteniendo las partículas alimenticias con variadas estructuras filtradoras y aglutinadoras, a nivel bucal y branquial. Características morfológicas típicas de este tipo de larvas son la boca carente de estructuras queratinizadas, cavidad bucal amplia, provista de estructuras filtradoras y zonas glandulares conspicuas, valor de brazo de palanca interno bajo, ángulo de rotación del ceratohial ampho, canastilla branquial compleia y voluminosa, soportando filtros branquiales muy desarrollados, y musculatura elevadora del piso de la boca muy desarrollada, en comparación con la depresora (SEALE & WASSERSUG, 1979; WASSERSUG & HOFF, 1979, SATEL & WASSERSUG, 1981, VERA CANDIOTI, 2006), Observaciones de los tamaños de partículas alimenticias ingeridos por E. huolor y D. muelleri revelan un predominio de items muy pequeños (< 1 1°, de la longitud rostro-tubo proctodeal del renacuajo; observaciones personales). Adicionalmente, dada la semejanza en la configuracion del aparato hiobranquial de estas especies con las larvas de Xenopus laevis, parece probable que la capacidad para retener particulas de tamaño infimo demostrada por este último (0.126 am: Wassi Rsug. 1972), se verifique también en larvas de microhílidos.

Los renacuajos de Scaphiophyme comparten algunas de las características morfológicas medicionadas (volumen de la cavidad bueal relativamente amplio, canastilla y filtros branquiales desarrollados), y se reportan como suspensivoros, suspensivoro-raspaderes, y en



Fig 7 Musculatura de Elachistocleis bicolor y Dermationotio muelleri. (a) Elachistocleis bicolor, estadio 34 (b) Dermationotius muelleri, estadio 35 Notese el segundo haz ventral del mi subartualis rectui Iy el mi suspensionolis undes inverto en la cipsula otica, en Elachistocleis, y el mi levator mundibalue longui indiviso, en Dermationotius (flechas).

ocasiones macrófagos carnívoros (BLOMMERS-SCHLÖSSER, 1975, WASSERSUG, 1984; 1989; McDiarmid & Altig. 1999b). Al menos dos especies. Microhyla heymonsi y M. achatina, se asignan al gremio de los renacuaios neustónicos. Estas formas se identifican por su inusual boca umbeliforme, y una alimentación, en principio, a base de partículas obtenidas de la película superficial en los cuerpos de agua. Para M. heymonsi, SATEL & WASSERSUG (1981) mencionan una musculatura elevadora y depresora del piso de la boca en proporción 1.2, resultando un valor de relación entre ambos músculos más bajo que en las formas suspensívoras, similar al valor reportado para larvas de morfología generalizada. Con respecto a la dieta, estas formas han sido reportadas como capaces de alimentación macrófaga (SMITH, 1916; HEYER, 1973). Por ultimo, los renacuaios de Hoplophryne rogersi y H uluguruensis se asignan al grupo de renacuajos arborícolas (NOBLE, 1929; McDIARMID & ALTIG, 1999b), v numerosas características pueden ser relacionadas al tipo de microhábitat y alimentación. H rogersi se alimenta principalmente de artrópodos, restos vegetales y huevos de anuros, y como otros renacuaios macrófagos, presenta ceratoliales robustos, canastilla branquial reducida. en este caso incluso con ausencia de ceratobranquiales y filtros branquiales, y musculatura depresora del piso de la boca compacta y desarrollada (Noble, 1929).

Las larvas de anuros están demostrando ser de utilidad a la hora de seleccionar caracteres para reconstruir filogenias, dada su gran variabilidad morfológica a diferentes niveles. Se espera entonoes que la información básica, con descripciones completas de variados aspectos, contribuya en la realización de trabajos comprensivos a nivel supraespecífico, y con ello a un mejor entendimiento de está interesante família.

RESUMEN

En este trabajo se describe la larva de Chiasmocleis panamensis, analizando la morfología externa, la cavidad bucal, el esqueleto cartilaginoso y la musculatura. La morfología externa es similar a otras especies del género, con boca carente de piezas queratinizadas, pliegues labiales, labio inferior espatulado, narinas no perforadas y espiráculo ventral. La cavidad bucal presenta numerosos caracteres comunes con otros microhilidos, como papilas postnariales, ausencia de papilas linguales, techo y piso bucales con escasa papilación, a excepción de papilas altas a ambos lados de la glotis, localizada muy anteriormente. Características músculo-esqueletales como la presencia de los procesos lateral posterior y subótico del palatocuadrado, proceso urobranquial largo, y la configuración particular de los mm. mandibulolabialis, intermandibularis, interhyoideus, suspensoriolis aideus, entre otros, son frecuentes entre los microhílidos. Caracteres distintivos son la reducción del proceso ventrolateral del palatocuadrado y de la cresta parótica, el cruzamiento de las fibras del millevator gregion branchialium III, y la presencia de un segundo haz ventral en el m subarciudis rectus I Rasgos como la ausencia de piezas bucales queratinizadas, el desarrollo de la canastilla y filtros branquiales, y de las zonas secretoras de mucus aglutinante, indican una alimentación del tipo suspensívora.

AGRADECIMIENTOS

Este trabajo fue posuble gracasa al soporte económico del Conse, o Nacional de Investigaciones (Centificas y Técnicas (CONICET, Argentina), y de la Smithsonian Tropical Research Institution (STRI) Los renaciangos fueron colectados con permiso de la Secretaria de Fisiado de Medio Anibente; y Desarrollo Sustentable de la Provincia de Santia Fe, la Secretaria de Medio Ambiente y Desarrollo Sustentable de Provincia de Salta, y la Direccion Nacional de Patrimonio Natural. Servicio Nacional de Administración de Areas Protegidas y Vida Silvestre (Paraman) Agradezco especialmente a Daniel Del Barco, Ana Ines Area, Chels Arcoseniera y Cesar Taramillo por su ayuda para tramutal ros permisos correspondientes Agradezco también a Stanley Rand, Ximena Bernal y Kathleen Lynch, por su ayuda y comanda insvaluables durante in in seada en Camboni.

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Corresponding editor Miguel VINCES

The tadpole of *Physalaemus lisei*Braun & Braun, 1977 (Anura, Leptodactylidae) from southern Brazil

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The tadpole of Physalaemus lisei is described from Rio Grande do Sul State, Brazil. Data on the external and internal morphology are presented, along with life history notes. A comparison between the Physalaemus species known from Rio Grande do Sul is presented, including all available information from literature.

INTRODUCTION

The genus Physulaensus comprises 43 described species, which are distributed in Central and South America, ranging from Mexico to Uruguay and adjacent Argentina (Where et al., 2005). Eight species of Phisalaensus are currently known from the state of Rio Grande do Sul in southern Brazil. P bilgomgerus, P curvert, P gracults, P henselu, P hive, P namus, P rograndensis and P. cf. grachs (Kwett, 2001). The external morphology of the tadpoles of five of these species has been previously described: P bilgomgerus (Ferramore, Erramore, Dec., 1921), P curvert (BOKERMANN, 1962; HAYER et al., 1990), P grachs (LANGONE, 1989), P henseln (BARRIO, 1953, 1964) and P riograndensis (Kehr et al., 2004). No data have yet been published on the larvae of P lises and P namus.

Physolaemus liver Braun & Braun, 1977 occurs in the mountain region of northeastern Rio Grande do Sul (Brall, & Brall, 1977). This species usually inhabits damp woodland and is frequently found in secondary forests or transition zones from woodland to grassland (KWIT & DI-BLENARDO, 1999). In this paper, we provide additional data on the life history of P lizer and describe the external morphology of the tadpole for the first time. Our description is compared with descriptions available for congenenc tadpoles occurring in Rio Grande do Sul Eve-nostril distance

Nostrilasnout distance

| deviation. | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------|----------|-----|------|-----|------|-----|------|-----|------|------|------|-----|------|
| Stage | 25 10 | | 27 | | 28 | | 32 | | 34 | 36 | 37 | | 40 |
| Sample size | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ۲ | s | х | 5 | х | 5 | х | s | | | х | 5 | |
| Total length | 10.9 | 2.7 | 13.8 | 0.2 | 16.8 | 1.1 | 17.5 | 2.1 | 17.7 | 19.1 | 23.7 | 0.4 | 25.2 |
| Body length | 44 | 1.4 | 5.8 | 0.8 | 67 | 0.5 | 74 | 02 | 71 | 7.8 | 98 | 02 | 9.5 |
| Body width | 32 | 1.0 | 42 | 0.5 | 4.9 | 0.4 | 5.5 | 0.1 | 6.0 | 5.8 | 7.3 | 0.6 | 6.0 |
| Body height | 26 | 09 | 3 6 | 0.5 | 3.5 | 0.2 | 4.5 | 04 | 45 | 49 | 5.5 | 03 | 4.5 |
| Tail length | 6.5 | 1.3 | 8.1 | 0.5 | 10.2 | 0.6 | 10.1 | 1.8 | 10.6 | 11.2 | 13.9 | 0.2 | 15.7 |
| Eye diameter | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 0.7 | 0.1 | 0.8 | 0.1 | 08 | 0.9 | 1.1 | 0.0 | 1.2 |
| Oral disc width | 12 | 0.3 | 1.3 | 01 | 17 | 61 | 1.7 | 0.0 | 18 | 20 | 22 | 0.0 | 2.2 |
| Interorbital distance | 14 | 04 | 1.5 | 02 | 18 | 0.1 | 2.2 | 0.2 | 23 | 2.3 | 3 0 | 0.1 | 2,9 |
| Internarial distance | 0.7 | 0.2 | 0.7 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 1.0 | 0.1 | 111 | 12 | 14 | 0.1 | 1.4 |

Table 1. – Measurements (in millimetres) of tadpoles of Physalaemus Irsei. x, mean, s, standard deviation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

0.6 | 0.2 | 0.8 | 0.0 | 0.9 | 0.1 | 1.0 | 0.1

11 03 12 00 14 01 1.2 01

14 14

Adult specimens of Physulaemus liser were collected at the Centro de Pesquisa e Conservação da Natureza Pró-Mata, municipality of São Francisco de Paula, Serra Geral region of Rio Grande do Sul. Brazil, at 29°27'-29°35' Sand 50°08'-50°15'W (Kwtr., 2001). Amplectant pairs were collected at temporary ponds and maintained in capitity until spawning. Foam nests were transferred to an artificial poin diseasuring 100 × 100 × 40 cm excavated in a field near the collection site. Previously we raised tadpoles in aquaria, but these tadpoles often showed reduced growth rates and malformations of the oral apparatus. To avoid eventual predators, the artificial pond was filled with water two days before the eggs were transferred. The larvae fed on algae and detritus naturally occurring in the pond. We did not provide additional foot.

Tadpoles were collected on days 9, 33 and 45 after hatching. Larvae were conserved in 70 "a alcohol and deposited in the collection of the MCP (Museu de Ciència e Tecnologia da Pontificia Universidade Catolica do Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil). We analysed 27 specimens. MCP 8889, nine tadpoles collected on 4 January 1999, MCP 3890, four tadpoles collected on 4 January 1999, MCP 3891, 10 tadpoles collected on 23 December 1998, MCP 3892, 7 tadpoles collected on 23 December 1998, MCP 3892, 7 tadpoles collected on 22 January 2001. Measurements were taken to the incarest 0.01 mm with a stereomicroscope (tab. 1), following the terminology of ALTIG & MC DIARMID (1970) and Gossia (1960). The internal oral anatomy was studied under a scanning electron microscope. The terminology follows WASS RSUG (1976).



Fig. 1. Tadpole of *Physalaemus lises*, lateral view. Specimen MCP 3893 (Gosner's stage 37). Scale line. 1 cm.

RESTRES

EXTERNAL MORPHOLOGY

Body oval in dorsal wew, depressed, approximately 40.1 %(± 2) according to the stage) of dorsal length (fig. 1). Snout rounded in dorsal and lateral wews. Nostrils round, directed dorsolaterally, closer to eyes than to snout; internarial distance approximately 48 % (± 5.3) of interorbital distance. Eyes dorsal, directed laterally. Spiracle sinistral, located anterior to midbody; lateral wall not free, directed posteriorly. Anal tube destrial, directed posteriorly.

Tail higher than body, about 59 8 % (\pm 2.9) of total length. Dorsal fin convex, ventral fin almost straight, origin of dorsal fin at body-tail junction. Fins gently tapering to acuminate tip, Caudal muscles not clearly defined

Oral disc emarginated and anteroventral, width 35 4 % (± 6 1) of body width (fig 2). Lower jaw sheath and upper jaw sheath keratinized. Upper jaw sheath arch-shaped, lower jaw sheath V-shaped, both wider than high and finely serrate A single row of marginal papillae surrounding oral disk, an extensive rostral gap present, no mental gap Submarginal papillae absent Labial teeth small, closely spaced. Tooth row formula 2(2/93(1).

In preserved specimens, gut visible by transparency. Some specimens with a brownish coloration visible on dorsum and on tail muscle. Area surrounding the eyes overall lighter. Tail fins transparent with irregular brownish marks. Lateral line system not visible

INTERNAL ORAL STRUCTURES

Buccal roof (fig. 3A) elongated with semicircular prenarial and postnarial arena. Prenanal arena without papillae. Ridge present at the middle of the prenarial arena, its width approximately 60° - of the arena's width, with the edge pustulated. Postnarial arena with two long lateral ridge papillae. Internal mares oblique in orientation. Narial valve projection ornamented with irregular postulations. Median ridge slightly inclined towards the rostrum.

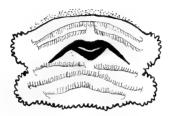


Fig. 2. Tadpole of *Physalaemus liser* oral disc. Specimen MCP 3893 (Gosner's stage 37) Scale line 2 mm

overall trapezoidal in shape, its width approximately 50% of the width of the postnarial arena, and with a pustulated edge. Buccal roof arena U-shaped delimited by four long and finger-like papillae on each side, buccal roof arena with scattered pustulations. Glandular zone with limits in semi-circular form, elevated on lateral parts.

Buccal floor (fig. 3B) triangular, shorter than buccal roof. Presence of six multiplebranching infralabial papillae, pustulated, four near lower beak and two positioned postroorly. Five lingual papillae localised between the two last infralabial papillae, placed in the medial width of the tongue; four finger-like shaped, two on each side and closely spaced, laterally localised, and a medial bifurcate papilla, larger with ramifications. Buccal floor arena generally with four finger-like papillae on each side and few small pustulations. Ventral velum clearly visible with flags in the medial part. Pustulations present on the flags.

NOTES ON LIFE HISTORY

We found 12 foam nests, each of which 3-4 cm in diameter. The minimum number of eggs counted was 397 and the maximum 779, with an average of 539 eggs. Two large, collective foam nests were found at a paddock in the study site. One nest containing 2004 eggs was observed on 20 November 1998 in a small pond measuring 0.75 × 0.75 m, whereas the other containing 1355 eggs was detected on 10 January 1999 in a flooded area.

Larvae of Physalaemus lise were often observed in temporary ponds between or under stores and fallen leaves, scraping algae fixed on stones or particles deposited on the bottom During feeding, tadpoles move slowly and preferentially use the bottom of shallow water

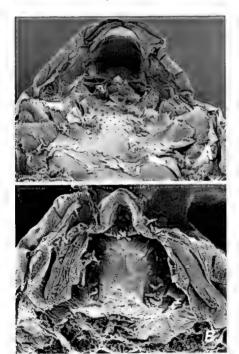


Fig. 3. – Tadpole of Physalaemus liver section of the mouth. Gosner's stage 37. A buccal roof of oral cavity, scale line 0.5 mm). B. buccal floor, scale line 0.2 mm.

DISCUSSION

All Physalaemus tadpoles from Rio Grande do Sul are similar in their external morphology. In all species, the body is ovoid in dorsal view being wider than high, the vent tube is dextral and the spiracle sinistral. Eyes are dorsolateral, the oral disc is anterventral and the overall coloration is brownish or greyish. Our measurements taken from larval P. lisei varied considerably between different stages, pointing out that morphometric data might not be suitable for the differentiation between tadolose of different species of Physalaemus.

Although variable, the oral morphology allows the differentiation among tadpoles in some species, e.g., tadpoles of species in the P curier species group from Argentina, which can be distinguished solely based on their oral disc morphology (Keer et al., 2004). Morphological characteristics allow the distinction between the tadpoles of P. cureer, P. heuseint. P Invi and P. roagrandersis (P. envieri species group) and of P. biligonigerus and P. gracific (P. biligonigerus species group) from Rio Grande do Sul. Physalaemus biligonigerus and P. gracific and prograndersis can easily be distinguished from other species by presenting only two lower tooth rows and from each other by their different tooth row formulae P. biligonigerus (2/2)/2 (FERNANDE & FERNANDE & FERNANDE & (2011 and P. roigerandersis 2/2/2/2/11 (LASONDE 1989) (tab. 2).

In some species of *Physulaemus*, the oral morphology was described using tadpoles from different populations. This led to some confusion. *Physulaemus hensehi* was first described by Barrio (1953) with the tooth row formula 2(2)(3)(1), whereas the same species was later described as having the formula 2/3(1) (Barrio, 1964). For *P. curver*, BOKERMANN (1962) and Cel (1980) recorded the formula 2/3(1), but Hrve et al. (1990) reported the formula 2/3(1). For *Physulaemus henselit* and *P. curver*, the formula 2/3(1) was also reported (BOKERMANN, 1962: BARRIO, 1964). These two species can be identified by the number of marginal papillae. Whereas *Physulaemus curver* has a single row of marginal papillae aphiliae, *P. henseli* has two rows of papillae which are located at the side near of the emargination. These marginal papillae might be also used to differentiate between other species of *Physulaemus*. *Physulaemus curver* in *AP lister* have a single row of marginal papillae, whereas *P. henseli* and *P. gracitis* present a double row. *Physulaemus curver* can be distinguished from *P. heus* by having a rostral and a mental gap, whereas *P. lister* has only a rostral gap, a rostral gap, whereas *P. lister* has only a rostral gap.

However, in several species of Physalaemus the oral morphology cannot be used for the unambiguous differentiation of tadpoles, e.g., in P bokermanni (CARDOSO & HADDAD, 1985) and P maculiventris (BOARMANN, 1963), which have the same tooth row formula and marginal papillae arrangement as P liser.

With regard to the foam nest size, Phivalaemus hitporngerus seems to possess the largest nests within all species of Phivalaemus known from Rio Grande do Sul, measuring 10-15 cm in diameter (Flernandez & Flernandez, 1921) Phivalaemus curveri has mid sized foam nests of 5-6 cm in diameter containing 300-400 eggs (Kwit & Di-Birnandez) (1999) According to Cit (1980), the diameter is 7-9 cm. Phivalaemus hier and Phenselin have small-sized foam nests, 3-4 cm in diameter. In the foam nests of Phenselin, Barrio (1953) found 200-250 eggs and Crit (1980) (propried 250-300 eggs) in the present study, we observed eeg numbers in Phive.

| Table 2 | Comparison of oral morphological features of tadpoles of Phisalaemus species from Rio Grand | le |
|---------|---|----|
| de | Sul (South Brazil) | |

| Species | Reference | Tooth row formula | Marginal papillae row | Rostral gap | Mental gap | |
|------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|--|----------------|---------------|--|
| P. biligonigerus | FERNANDEZ & FERNANDEZ, 1921 | 2(2)/2 | Single | Present | Absent | |
| P, cuvieri | BUKERMANN, 1962, CEI, 1980 | 2/3(1) | Single | Present | Present | |
| P. cuvieri | HEYER et al., 1990 | 2(2)/3(1) | Single | Present | Present | |
| P graeilis | LANGONE, 1989 | 2(2)/3(1) | Double | Present | Absent | |
| P. henselu | Barrio, 1953 | 2(2)/3(1) | Single on the lower labium, double at sides | Present | Present | |
| P henselu | Barrio, 1964 | 2/3(1) | Single on the lower lab.um, double at sides | Present | Present | |
| P lises | Hoc loco | 2(2)/3(1) | Single | Present | Absent | |
| P riograndensis | KEHR et al., 2004 | 2(2)/2(1) | Single | Present | Absent | |

varying between 300 and 700 eggs. There are no data available on P graculis. Additional field data are required to distinguish between the foam nests of the different species of Physalae-mis.

RESUMEN

La larva de *Physalaemus lisei* es descrita por primera vez. Aportamos datos sobre la morfologia interna y externa junto con notas sobre la història natural Comparamos toda la información disponable sobre larvas de *Physalaemus* del estado de Rio Grande do Sul.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We hie to thank Marcos Di-Bernardo for the tadpoles and Rafael de Sa, Esteban O Lodila, Stéphane Grospa, and Wolf Engels for comments on the manuscript Kari-Henry Helmer prepared the scanning electron microscope samples. C Both was supported by a scholarship of the Badon-Wurtenberg foundation. This research was conducted in the process DIR-BMBF OILTIOII 17" Artacaria forest" and DLR/IB-FAPERGS "Subsidios para o diagnostico ambiental do Plancillo das Araucarias".

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Corresponding editor Stéphane GROSJEAN.

Ziusudra, de la nomenclature à l'informatique: l'exemple des Amphibiens¹

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The International Code on Zoological Nomenclature deals with nomina (scientific names) of taxa of ranks between subspecies and superfamily, i.e. so-called "lower nomenclature". No Rules exist for "higher nomenclature", which is therefore informal, instable and confusing. A recent proposal of Rules for higher nomenclature relies on the original contents and limits of taxa for which the nomina were proposed, as compared with the current contents and limits of taxa in a given taxonomy. Furthermore, in order not to unset two and a half centuries of tradition. nomina in large use, especially outside the specialised field of systematics, need to be conserved. This work presents a formalization for the representation of nomenclatural data and the automation of the application of the proposed nomenclatural Rules to these data. A prototype of software was developed, its architecture is based on: (1) a database which includes the nomenclatural information needed for the formalization proposed; (2) a program at file server end, which queries the database and implements the proposed rules; (3) a web interface which allows to operate the program.

The prototype was developed first on the example of the nomina of the class Amphibia

INTRODUCTION

Après 250 ans de taxinomie et de nomenclature, où en sommes-nous de la gestion des noms scientifiques? Doit-on écrire ESECTA ou HEAAPOBA, URODELA Ou CAL DATA? Poit-on se préoccuper de la distinction "nomenclature supérieure - nomenclature inferieure"? Le travail presente dans cet article constitue un élément de réponse à ces deux questions,

l Communication presentee lors de la table ronde "Systematique et diversite des Amphibiens" organisee par l'ISSCA et tenue à l'Université d'Angers (France) le 3 fevrier 2006

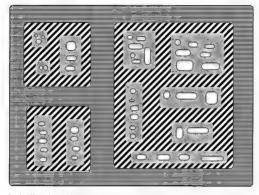


Fig. 1. Hierarchie mathématique. Chiaque sous-ensemble est contenu dans un plus grand ensemble. Ilu-même contenu dans un plus grand ensemble. On parie de hierarchie mathematique car la notion d'inclusion se superpose à la notion d'ordre.

La taxinomie (ou plus exactement la macrotaxinomie; Mayr & Ashlock, 1991) vise a établir une classification systématique des êtres vivants (Darlu & Tassyr, 1993). La nomenclature, quant à elle, a pour fonction de donne des noms scentifiques ou nomma (Debos), 2000) aux taxons, de manière telle que tous les utilisateurs de ces nomina puissent parler sans ambiguité de la même chose (Anonyrar, 1999). Taxinomie et nomenclature ont une structure hierarchique (fig. 1), comportant un ensemble de rangs successifs, dont sept principaux (regne, embranchement, classe, ordre, famille, genre et espèce) et divers rangs additionnels, pour la plupart désignés par des préfixes (sous-espèce, super-famille, etc.). Ces rangs permettent de formaliser une structuration des relations de subordination (ou d'inclusion) entre taxons, traduites dans une hierarchie entre nomina (Knox, 1998). Les deux disciplines taxinomie et nomenclature, ben qui intimement liece, sont distinctes. Le but de la nomenclature est d'accompagner la taxinomie, non de la figer (Anonyrafe, 1999).

Au sein de la nomenclature zoologique, on peut définir deux sous-ensembles. (1) la nomenclature dite superneure, qui porte sur les noms scientifiques appartenant al Intervalle de rangs allant du regne à l'ordre (nomina de la "sèrie-classe", sensu Dt Bois, 2000, 2005a- ϵ , 2006a- ϵ), et (2) la nomenclature dite inférieure, qui porte sur les noms scientifiques apparte

nant à l'intervalle de rangs allant de la famille à l'espèce (nomina de la "série-famille", de la "série-genre" et de la "série-espèce", sensu DUBOIS, 2000, 2005a-c, 2006a-c)

La nomenclature zoologique inférieure repose sur le Code International de Nomenclature Zoologique (ANONYME, 1999; denommé "le Code" ci-dessous), qui permet de règir les noms scientifiques selon des Règles précises et asser souvent contratgnantes mais nécessaires. Pour faire face aux problèmes qui se posent parfois, statuer en cas de litiges, et permettre à cette nomenclature d'évoluer, il existe une instance, la Commission Internationale pour la Nomenclature Zoologique (dénommée "la Commission" ci-dessous, Celle-ci publie un périodique trimestriel, le Bulletin of Zoological Nomenclature, destiné à discuter des problèmes et des propositions soumises par les zoologistes du monde entier, et à rendre publiques les décisions de la Commission

La nomenclature supérieure n'est actuellement pas régie par des Règles. Certains critères consensules sont parfois unliese pour choisir entire plusieurs nomina poientiels pour un taxon, mais sans Rêgle precise formalisé, si bien que le résultat de leur application ne peut être in objectif in nécessairement repétable. Ces critères de choix d'un nomen reposent sur: (1) la priorité d'anciennaté entre deux nomina, sans tenir le plus souvent compte de l'evolution du contenu (extension) du taxon correspondant. (2) la nature plus ou moins appropriée du nomen, par exemple, pour parler d'un animal à six pattes, le nomen HEXAPODA semble plutôt adapté, (3) l'emploi du gree el/ou du latin pour former le nomen, (4) l'"usage", mais sans definition précise de ce qui est un usage significant.

Ces critères vagues, employés en nomenclature supérieure, ne sont pas cohérents avec le
Code, qui s'applique aux nomma de taxons inférieurs II existe dons actuellement deux fonctionnements différents au sein de l'ensemble de la nomenclature zoologique, ce qui n'est pas
sutisfaisant pour l'esprit et porte en germe une remise en cause fondamentale du Code, celu-ci
n'ayant pas une fonction universelle pour tous les nomina zoologiques, contraiement à
d'autres systemes alternatifs récemment proposés, comme le Philocode (LALBIN & CANTING,
2004). D'autre part, la généralisation des analyses cladistiques induit de nos jours une multiplication des nomina de taxons supérieurs, ou encore le manuaus emploi des nomina existants. Dece
double constat se dégage la nécessité de formaliser la nomenclature supérieurs.

Un nouveau système pour la nomenclature supérieure

Les Règles récemment proposées pour la nomenclature supérieure (Dubois, 2004, 2006ar.) à sobaent sur les mêmes principes fondamentaux que la nomenclature inférieure, pour assurer logrque et cohérence à l'ensemble de la nomenclature zoologique Comme dans le cas des nomina règis par le Code, on parfera en nomenclature supérieure de. (1) disponibité du nomen (terme l'àthinse; publes sur un support durable et en vertu de Règles précises comme le demande le Cade pour les nomina inférieurs), (2) estrebution d'un nomen a un taxon, qui s'effectue par le basis d'un "type porte-nom" ou onomatophore (SIMPON, 1946), Dubois & OHLER, 1997, DL BOIS, 2005.); (3) validité du nomen pour désigner un taxon précis en fonction de la priorite entre d'eventuels synonymes (objectifs ou subjectifs) ou homonymes.

En raison des particularités de la nomenclature supérieure, l'onomatophore ne correspondra plus à un spécimen ou un nomen mais à une liste de nomina de genres, inclus dans
l'extension du taxon pour lequel il a été créé. Un autre concept est employé, celui de
"protection" d'un nomen, proche de la notion d'usage pré-citée mais plus objectif. Cela
revient à priviléger un synonyme par rapport à un autre, même s'ul n'est pas prontature sur le
plan de son antériorité mais parce qu'il est significativement employé en dehors du domaine de
la systématique. Ontrairiement à la pratique récente de la Commission, qui a alimenté ces
dernières années des débats animés, la protection ic rieleve de critères précis (Dusois,
2005-d.). En effet, la formule en italiques ci-dessus est définie précisément comme suit. (1) soit
dans les titres d'au moins vingi-cinq livres non purement systématiques, écrits par vingi-cinq
auteurs-indépendants (c'est-a-dire n'ayant jamais publié ensemble sur le taxon concerné) et
publiés dans au moins dix pays différents après le 31 décembre 1899; (2) soit dans les titres d'au
moins cent publications (livres, chapitres de luvres ou articles de périodiques) non purement
systématiques, écrites par cent auteurs-indépendants et publiés dans au moins dix pays
différents années le 31 décembre 1899.

Une fois ces bases de nomenclature mises en place, la proposition originale de Duaois (2004, 2005a-4, 2006a-c) repose sur la comparaison entre la taxinomie originale ou protaxinomie (c'est-à-dire le contenu et les limites du taxon auquel se rapporte un nomen lors de sa première publication) et une taxinomie choisie. En fonction de sa pensée taxinomique, chaque chercheur peut désigner comme fonctionnelle une taxinomie différente, écst-à-dire une regotaximomie donnee (DL Bois, 2005c). La comparaison entre protaxinomie et ergotaxinomie peut donner leu ît trois cas de fieures.

Considerons tout d'abord une ergotaxinomie actuelle représentée par la figure 2, et immonien squ'un nomen NI fut initialement proposé pour un taxon incluant les genres GI et G4. Par rapport à l'ergotaxinomie considérée, le nomen NI s'applique potentiellement à deux taxons de rangs supérieurs, TI et T2, qui tous deux incluent les genres GI et G4. Pour trancher entre les deux, en l'absence d'autres informations, le neux dle moins inclusif sera retenu, et le nomen NI devra donc être attribué au taxon T2.

Toujours par rapport à la même ergotaxinomie de la figure 2, considérons maintenant un nomen N2, créé pour un taxon incluant les genres G2 et G6, et excluant explicitement le genre G7. Dans l'ergotaxinomie considérée, un seul taxon, T2, correspond à cette double caractérisation c'est donc sans ambiguité à ce taxon et lui seul que s'appliquera le nomen N2.

Considérons enfin un nomen N3 créé pour un taxon incluant les genres C2 et G8, et excluant explicitement le genre G5. Aucun taxon dans l'ergotaxinomie de la figure 2 ne correspond à cette caractérisation, puisque le taxon 1, qui inclut les genres G2 et G8, inclut également le genre G5. Dans un tel cax, on ne prendra pas en compte l'information apportée par l'exclusion d'un genre (qui uest devenie uncompatible acet l'ergotaxinomie actuelle), et on ne considérera que l'information apportée par la liste des genres inclus, ce qui nous ramène dans la même situation que pour le nomen N1 si ce homen N3 s'appliquera au taxon T1.

Les Regles simples presentees graphiquement ct-dessus et de mainère plus detaillée ailleurs (Dunois, 2005h,d, 2006h,e) permettent l'attribution automatique et non-ambigué de tout nomen de nomenclature superieure à un taxion supérieur actuellement reconnu dans le cadre d'une ergotaxionnomie donnoe Mais cec n'implique pas que celu-ct-soit le nomen valude du taxion à l'heure actuelle. En effet, en vertu de ces Règles, pluseurs nonmas distincts peuvent

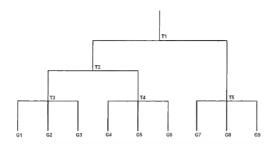


Fig. 2. Arbre de taxons. Dans cet exemple, on consudérera arbitrairement que les taxons de rang inféreur (G1 à 69) sont des genres, regroupés dans des taxons supereurs (T1 a T5) de pluseurs rangs distincts. Le nomen N1 fut intulalement proposé pour un taxon incluant les genres G2 let G4 Le nomen N2 fut intulalement proposé pour un taxon incluant les genres G2 et G6 et excluant le genre G7 Le nomen N3 fut intulalement proposé pour un taxon incluant les genres G2 et G8 et excluant le genre G5.

s'appliquer au même taxon (c'est le cas dans l'exemple ci-dessus des nomina N1 et N2). Dans un tel cas, comment trancher? Les Régles proposées font la distinction entre deux situations: (1) soit un nomen est d'usage significatif, aussi il sera protégé et validé. (2) soit en nomen est d'usage significatif, et il n'y a pas heu de le protéger, dans un tel cas, comme en nomenclature inferieure, c'est la simple priorité de publication qui permettra de déterminer le nomen à retenir comme valide pour le taxon

A ces Règles simples dowent être adjointes diverses Règles annexes, destinées à gèrer un certain nombre de cas particuliers et de problèmes spécifiques qui se posent en nomenclature superieure en raison du fait que cette nomenclature est restée pendant 250 ans hors de tout contexte formalisé, et que les nomina des taxons superieurs s'appliquent chacun à un seul taxon et non pas à une série de taxons coordonnés, comme dans la nomenclature inféreure où existe la Regle de Coordination (ANONYME, 1999). Les Règles proposees sont amsi nécessairement complexes dans le détail (Dunois, 2006a), mais elles ont l'avantage de permettre de concilier la tradition centenaire d'emploi de certains nomina (comme AMPHIBIA ou MOLLI SCA) dans des milliers de publications non-spécialises en systématique, avec un beson de rigueur, d'unversalité et d'automateite dans l'emploi de tous les autres nomina inconnus des non-spécialises, ou très récemment créés. A cet égard, ces Règles sont certainement nettement préferables à un autre système récemment proposé pour la nomenclature supérieure (ALONSO-ZARAZAGA, 2005), qui envisage de remplacer tous les nomina, y compris les plus connus, par un système de nomina nouveaux suivant une Règle de Coordination, cette proposition catastrophique, se lel devai être suvive par la Commission, cette proposition catastrophique se lel devai être suvive par la Commission, cette proposition catastrophique se lel devai être suvive par la Commission, cette proposition catastrophique se lel devai être suvive par la Commission.

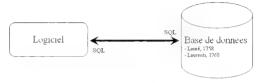


Fig. 3. -- Architecture actuelle du prototype.

doute à elorgner du Code de nombreux utilisateurs des nomina zoologiques, pour les jeter dans les bras du Phylocode (Dubois, 2005c) ou d'un autre système alternatif.

UNE PROPOSITION D'INFORMATISATION

PRINCIPE

Un prototype nommé Ziusudra' (fig. 3) a été développé pour automatiser la recherche du nomen valide d'un taxon supéneur selon les Règles ci-dessus. Son objectif est donc de permettre à tout utilisateur de déterminer automatiquement quel est le nomen de la série-clase à utiliser aujourd'hui parmi les nomina disponibles, en fonction du contenu du taxon pour lequel chaque nomen a été crée. Décomposons est differents aspects (1) la mise à disposition d'un service sur internet permettra a tout utilisateur d'avor accès a la même information, automatiquement et rapidement (2) selon la formalisation de la nomenclature superneure proposée, chaque nomen pourra être valudé ou rejeté selon une succession d'étapes explicitement définies. (3) le service comportera un stockage d'informations nomenclaturales et taxinomiques, ce qui s'est traduit dans le cadre de ce travail par la mise en place d'une base de données. A l'heure actuelle, le prototype informatique décrit ci-dessous n'est opérationnel qu'avec une seude ergotaxinomie, mais pour pouvoir respecter la liberté de la pensée taxinomique un nombre indéfini d'ergotaxinomies pourront ultérieurement être comparées avec la taxinomie oriennale.

Développé en PERL (Christiansi n & Torkington, 1999; Wall et al., 2001), deployé sur un serveur à l'aide du système de gestion de base de données Postgre (Worsley & Drakt.)

2. Pourquoi Zimundro (Diusus, "Subay") La fecture de mythes anciens nous révête que Noé (Noah tel qu'il opparait dans la Bible) n'est pas le seul nom qui existe pour nommer celui qui a rassemblé une paire de chaque espéce vivante au seim de son arché Sont a ce titre disponibles le nom hébreux Noakh, le nom grez Deucation, le nom persar Yima, les nom indis Manu et Salyavrata, et le nom babyloinen Utanphistim Mais le plus naciene, et qui aurant par conséquent la prontie, est le nom sumerne Disundra Or s'il a preunir sur son arche un couple de chaque espéce, Ziusadra a dú developper une taxinomie pour les identifier, et probablement une nomencalature pour les nommer.

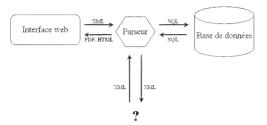


Fig. 4. - Architecture prévue du logiciel

2002), le service proposé permet à toute personne disposant d'un poste informatique connecté à internet d'interroger la base de données et de voir le resultat obtenu dans le cas de l'application des Règles proposées Cr-dessous nous considérerons, à litre d'exemple, les deux premières publications concernant la taxinomie du groupe des Amphibiens (Linnaeus, 1758; LAURENT, 1768).

Cette architecture doit évoluer vers le schéma présenté en figure 4 pour s'enrichir de nouvelles possibilités L'interface web communiquera donc en XML avec la absacé de données via un traducteur. Elle enverra au serveur une requête au format XML. Le traducteur interprétera cette requête, interrogera la base de données et renverra à l'interface web, donc au naviateur, une fiche-résultat en format XML.

Le parseur forme alors le coeur du loguele car il permettra d'ennehir la base de données, ou simplement d'interroger la base, autrement que par l'interface mise en place. Pour que les résultats soient pertinents, il est primordial de faciliter la mise à jour de la base de données. La tavinomie est une science vivante faite d'hypothèses, plus ou moins stable selon les groupes mais qui reste névolution continuelle. Le mainten a jour des informations nécessite alors une main d'œuvre qui fait le plus souvent défaut. Face à ce probleme, ce logiciel se veut a long terme autonome dans le sens où il corrigera les informations présentes dans la base de données en fonction des nouvelles publications saisies. Dans un premier temps, un contrôle assuré par un ou des spécialistes sera nécessaire pour vérifier que l'automatisation des Règles produit un résultat cohérent, nomenclaturaliement et taxinomiquement. La seule mise a jour nécessaire sera ensuite l'alimentation de la base de données en nouvelles publications. Celle-ci sera décentralisee et proposera une mier face en higne. Cette mierface d'édition, déployée sur un serveur et accessible de tout poste informatique connecte à internet, ne pourra en re-anche pas étre utilisable par tout utilisateur, mais plutôt par des spécialistes qui s'authentifieront, ce qui permettra un suivi des saisses.

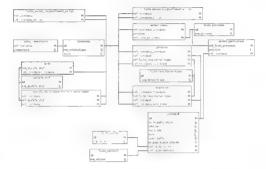


Fig 5 Schéma de la base de données. D, champ de type date, FK, foreign key ou réferant, qui permet de leir une information d'une table a une information d'une autre table, I, champ integer ou entier, PK, primary key ou clè primatire, unique pour chaque entrée au sein de la table considerée; S, champ de type string ou chaîne de caractère.

SCHÉMA DE LA BASE DE DONNÉES

La base de données repose sur un schéma (fig. 5), inspiré des travaux de Brerlosothi (1995, 1997; Bir Rindsohn et al., 1999) et de Zhong et al. (1996, 1999). Les quatre tables centrales de ce schéma sont, (1) ""nonommud", où sont stockés les nomina et leurs dates de création; (2) ""nonompub", où sont stockées les publications, décrites par un certain nombre d'attributs ou colonnes; (3) "ergotaxon", où est stockee l'ergotaxinomie de référence (en l'occurrence. Trat il & Cloutifir, 1991; Tudist 2000, Lefonnir & Li Guyadir, 2001); (4) "protavon", où est stockée la taxinomie originale

La hiérarchie entre taxons est us stockee en liant le taxon qui porte le nomen na ut axon surodonné qui porte le nomen N. Les tables "auteun nonen" et "auteur publication" sont ce qu'on appelle des tables de crossement qui permettent de restituer les relations de type "na im (GRAY et al., 2000). Elles permettent de leir plusieurs personnes (les noms de personnes étant stockes dans la table "personne") à une publication ou a un nomen et réciproquement, tout en conservant la postion de l'auteur lorsqu'il y en a plusieurs. Les tables "l'iste gentes origine-lement_melin" et "liste_gentes origine-lement_melin", permettent de stocker le contenu et les limites du protaxon pour lequel fut creé le nomen considéré. Les tables "rang hiérarchique", "qualificatif", "personne", "liste editeurs" et "liste_tilles" permettent de stocker de manére

unitaire (une seule fois dans la table) des informations qui apparaissent souvent dans les autres tables (le rang hiérarchique "gener" est référencé 694 fois dans la table "regratorn", mais il n'est stocké qu'une seule fois dans la table "rang "hérarchique"). La table "mode" stocké à l'heure actuelle un qualificatif qui renseigne sur l'usage d'un nomen, à sivoir s'il est oublié, peu utilisé, utilisé seulement dans des publications systématiques ou également en déhors de la systématique. Une prochaime étape de travail sera d'ajouter à cette table un attribut (ou une colonne) "ref_zoonompub" afin de stocker des références bibliographiques appuyant l'adjectif rattaché à tel nomen. La table "qualification nomen_fonction_autre nomen" permet de stocker les liens qui peuvent exister entre nomina (tel nomen est le nom original remplacé par tel nomen nouveau; tel nomen est l'orthographe subséquente de tel autre).

ALGORITHME

Lorsque l'utilisateur soumet une requête en indiquant un nomen de la série-classe, le prototype exécute dans l'ordre les étapes suivantes:

- (1) rechercher le nomen saisi par l'utilisateur dans la base de données;
- (2) vérifier dans la table "qualification_nomen_autre_nomen" (fig. 5) si le nomen recherché est soit (a) un nouveau protonyme, soit (b) l'archéonyme (ou nomen annem) d'un autre nomen (son néonyme), soit (c) le néonyme (ou nomen norum), introduit comme nomen de remplacement d'un nomen déjà existant (son archéonyme).
- (3) vérifier dans la table "qualification_nomen autre nomen" si le nomen recherché est une orthographe subséquente à l'originale et indiquer l'originale, sinon c'est l'orthographe originale;
- (4) afficher le nomen de rang supérieur auquel le nomen recherché était subordonné dans la protaxinomie,
- (5) afficher pour le nomen de rang supérieur tous les nomina qui lui sont immédiatement subordonnés dans la protaxinomie;
- (6) afficher pour le nomen recherche tous les nomina qui lui sont subordonnés dans la protaxinomie;
- (7) afficher le ou les genres originellement inclus grâce à la table "Irsies_genres_originellement_inclus";
- (8) à partir de l'ergotaxmomie actuelle, donner le nomen du taxon de rang le plus bas (soit le moins inclusif, ou métrotaxon) qui englobe le ou les genres inclus précédemment cités;
- (9) vérifier que les genres originellement exclus (information disponible dans la table "Inters_genrer_originellement_exclus") sont à l'extérieur de l'extension taxinomique actuelle du métrotaxon; si des genres originellement exclus sont aujourd'hui inclus, ils seront indiqués sous l'appellation d'intragenera.
- (a) si l'extension taxinomique actuelle du métrotaxon correspondant au nomen rechercher des définissable par ses genres inclus et ses genres exclus, le nomen sera qualifié de choronyme,
- (b) si l'extension taxinomique actuelle du métrotaxon correspondant au nomen recherché n'est définissable que par ses genres inclus, le nomen sera qualifié de néson me,

(10) si le nomen est un choronyme, afficher les genres exclus et le nomen du taxon de rang le plus haut (soit le plus inclusifs, ou aorotaxon) qui englobe les genres inclus et écarte les genres exclus de son extension taxinomique;

- (11) vérifier le statut actuel du nomen recherché en fonction de son usage;
- (12) proposer soit (a) une validation du nomen, que ce soit (s) parce que l'étendue taxinomique initulae et actuelle correspondent; ou (b) parce que d'in point de vue usasse il est protégé, soit (b) s'úl n'entre dans aucun de ces deux cas, une invahdation du nomen recherché, avec indication du nomen aujourd'hui à utiliser si l'on veut définir l'extension taxinomique que le nomen recherché représentait à l'origine (soit le nomen du métrotaxion ou de l'orotaxion quand c'est possible).

Lorsqu'un nomen se voti validé selon les Régles na utilisées, il faut le protéger. Sa taxinomie actuelle devient sa taxinomie de réference. Cette procédure de validation est envisagée à l'heure actuelle uniquement à la condition qu'il y ait un contrôle par un spécialiste du groupe donné. Mais ce changement de taxinomie (passage de la taxinomie actuelle à la taxinomie de référence) peut se faire automatiquement. L'application des Régles peut donc être automatisée, et le résultat univoque pour tout utilisateur.

La recherche d'un nomen qui n'est pas de la série-classe donne un certain nombre d'informations mas ne donne pour l'instant pas le nom de la série-classe à utiliser à l'heure actuelle. Cela fait partie des évolutions qui doivent être apportées au logiciel. En effet, un ri pe de recherche est à l'heure actuelle considéré mais il y en a au moins deux: (1) l'utilisateur a une idée du nomen de la série-classe à utiliser et veut s'assurer que c'est bien celtur-ci qui doit être utilise aujourd'hui (2) l'utilisateur souhaite savoir quel est le nomen de la série-classe à utiliser aujourd'hui pour le genre sur lequel il travaille.

La structure de la base permet, à l'aude de requêtes simples, de retrouver aisément les informations stockées. Ce qui a soulevé le plus de difficultés est le parcours de la taxnome nécessaire afin de retrouver l'attribution taxnomique actuelle des genres inclus et exclus. La méthode deployée présente une complexité algorithmique (ou CA dans la suite du texte, il s'agit d'un indice de complexite pour un algorithmique (ou CA dans la suite du texte, il s'agit d'un indice de complexite pour un algorithmiq de 2nA, où n designe le nombre de genres et k le nombre de niveaux à parcourir (de rangs qu'il faut remonter dans l'arbre taxnomique) pour atteindre le taxon que neglobe les genres considérés L'algorithme crèc un tableau T qui stocke chaque taxon surordonne au fur à mesure qu'on remonte la taxnomie (qu'on change de rang) et son nombre d'occurrences

Ce parcours de l'arbre taxunomique pourrait encore être amélioré. En effet, actuellement. l'algorithme utilise donne des temps de réponses acceptables mais la croissance de la base peut alourdir le parcours de l'arbre. Une optimisation serait alors envisageable en reprenant les schémas algorithmiques de Schieber et Vishkin (GUSTILD, 1997: 181-195; CORMIN et al., 2001: 476-497) et en associant leur méthode de référencement des nœuds avec la proposition de numérichature (LITTIL, 1964; HULL, 1966, HLPPILI, 1991). La proposition de Schieber et Vishkin repose sur des arbres dichotomiques voire équilibrés ce qui n'est pas le cas des taxinomes qui sont ica it traiter. Les auteurs proposent une methode qui revient à étiqueter chaque nœud de leur arbre dichotomique equilibré par un 0 ou un 1 et permet donc de référencer chaque feuille par un nombre unique binaire. En partant de la racine, le référencement de chaque nœud d'un arbre taxinomique donne par un numéro permetratat d'associer. chaque taxon à un numero et, au sein de cette taxnomue, de retrouver rapidement le taxon le plus ou le moms inclusif qui englobe les taxons considérés. On perd l'avantage du binaire mais c'est une obligation car les arbres à traiter dans notre exemple ne sont pas dichotomiques in équilibrés. Cette perte n'est pas problématique car on ne perd pas l'optimisation au sein d'une taxinomie, puisque chaque taxon aura un numéro (par exemple 16.243.46.53 et 16.24.34.75.25) et retrouver le taxon qui inclut nos deux taxons exemples s'en trouvera tout aussi rapide et évident (ce sera ici 16.24.34). Parce que les taxinomies peuvent énormément varier, un nomen aurat un numéro N par taxinome, et d'ans les cas d'un arbre qui ne présente pas dans chaque branche la même structure hierarchique (soit le même emboitement de rangs), on conservera la même structure hierarchique pour chaque nomen au sein d'une taxinomie. Si pour un nomen un rang n'est pas spécifié, il sera représenté dans son numéro par un 0. Le 0 serait alors défini comme ne pouvant être le taxon supérieur commun qui englobe les autres taxons recherchés.

Un exemple de requête

Le prototype accessible à l'heure actuelle [http://lullysnv.jussieu.fr/zuusudra] se présente comme un moteur de recherche (fig. 6). Une fenêtre d'aide renseigne sur les noms interrogeables.

Soil l'exemple d'une requête avec le nomen ANPHIBIA. La figure 7 représente la réponse à cette requête, affichée selon ces grandes categories (1) informations sur le nomen' date, auteur(s), orthographe originale ou subséquentie; (2) informations sur la place taxinomique de ce nomen dans la publication originale (inomen surordonné, autres nomina subordonnes au même nomen surordonné, et nomina subordonnés au nomen considéré; 1) comparisano, pour ce nomen, entre sa protaxinomie et son ergotaxinomie actuelle, (4) informations sur son usage, et proposition de validation; (5) commentaire.

Reprenons la figure 2 et l'exemple du nomen porté par le noeud T4. Le nomen qui lui est surordonne est le nomen porte par le noeud T2. Un autre nomen subordonné au même nomen surordonné est le nomen porté par le noeud T3. Les nomina subordonnés au nomen considéré sont les nomina portés par les noeuds G4. G5 et G6.

Développons l'exemple illustré par la recherche du nomen Aufrinia. La fiche résultat donne donc le nomen, ainsi que son auteur et sa date de publication (c'est-à-dire, Linné, 1758). Elle indique qu'il s'agit du nomen remplacé par S'Firak. Scopoli, 1777 puis par Cristaco/ox Hermann, 1783 et qu'il s'agit de l'orthographe originale. De la table "pindatour", est extrate la taxnomme dans la pubbication originale. A partir de la liste de genres originalement inclus, le nomen a utiliser pour caractériser cette extension (dans l'ergotavinomie) est indique sont dans le cas présent Vistafirabrat. Cuvier, 1800. Une liste de genres explicitement originellement exclus est disponible mais certains de ces genres sont aujourd'hui inclus dans le taxon. Cette limite n'est donc pas informative pour fixer le statut du nomen. Commet indique la fiche, ce nomen ne peut être defini que par ses genres inclus. N'ayant pas été utilise depuis 1899 au sens où il a été defini intitalement, din'y a pas leu de le protéger. La validation propose donc de le remplacer par Vigat la Brata A Cuvier, 1800, qui répond a la condition ne informative nou fine.

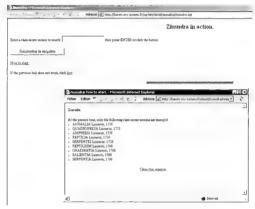


Fig. 6. - Vue de la page d'accueil de l'interface web.

et utilisable (inclure aujourd'hui les genres qui étaient inclus dans AMPHBIA L'innaeux, 1758). Dans le prototype actuel, il n'est propose a l'utilisateur qu'une seule ergotaxinome. Dans le futur, il est prévu d'en avoir plusieurs. En effet, tout comme dans le Code, il n'est pas question ici de définir une préférence pour un courant de pensée mais de permettre d'obtenir aisément des informations, de façon a prendre la décision la plus objective, la plus utile et la plus informative.

DISCUSSION FT CONCLUSION

Ce travail vise a la publication d'un formalisme (stockage, exploitation et échange de données nomenclaturales et akniomquies) appuye sur un logicie multi-plateforme. Il démontre que l'automatisation et l'informatisation de Règles nomenclaturales sont possibles. En effet, la nomenclature superieure est plus compliquée a gerer que la nomenclature inferieure, et il sera donc reclativement ause d'appliquer co formalisme à cette dermière Do pourrait alors.

- Nomen: AMPHIBIA
- · Author(s): Linnaeus
- Date: 1758
- New or old nomen: original nomen that has been replaced by SEBAE Scopoli, 1777 and CRYEROZOA Hermann, 1783
- · Spelling: original spelling
- · Original taxonomy:
 - Surordinate taxon to the taxon that bears the nomen ANIMALIA Linnaeus, 1758
 - Subordinate taxa to the same surordinate taxon. AVES Limineus. 1758. INSECTA. Limineus. 1758. MAMMALIA Limineus. 1758. PISCES Limineus. 1758. VERMES. Limineus. 1758.
 - Taxa subordinate to the taxon that bears the nomen. NANTES Liminaeus, 1758.
 REPTILIA Linnaeus, 1758.
 SERPENTES Linnaeus, 1758.
- List of the generic nomina, originally included in the extension of the taxon bearing the nomen; (1) Acmenser Lumaeus 1758 [1 (16) Testudo Lumaeus 1758
- Current taxonomic allocation of those generic nomina, originally included in the
 extension of the taxon bearing the nomen: Subphylum VERTEBRATA Current 1800
- List of the generic nomina, originally excluded in the extension of the taxon bearing the nomen: (1) Alauda Linnaeus. 1758. [.] (153) Zeus Linnaeus. 1758
- Current taxonomic allocation of those generic nomina, originally excluded in the extension of the taxon bearing the nomen: Subphylum VERTEBRATA Cuvier 1800
- Definition of the nomen: the nomen can be defined only by its originally included taxa
- Current status of the nomen regarding usage: nomen clearly menhoned as nomenclaturally available (in some cases as an available semor homouvin making a jumor homonym invalid) but never used as valid by any author and in any publication after 31 December 1899
- Proposed status of nomeu: nomenclaturally invalid but available nomen according to the
 rules here used for the class-series nomina validation of a junior homonym or of a neonym
 subjective symonym of Subplyshum VERTERATA Cuver. 1800
- Comments:

The conucleogenera [] the senior homonym

Fig. 7. - Fiche-resultat pour le nomen AMPHIBIA Linnaeus, 1758

s'attendre à un élargissement du champ d'action du Code, tout en gardant a l'esprit que cela doit demander un minimum de travail, en termes de comprehension pour les utilisateurs (pour lesquels le logiciel ne doit pas, autant que faire se peut, être une boûte noire), et en termes de mise à tour. Dans la suite de ce travail, s'imposeront: (1) une étape de communication avec des utilisateurs pour plus de valeur ajoutée: le site [paleodh org] constitue un bon exemple d'un service qui propose un niveau d'information paramétrable par l'utilisateur; (2) une étape de communication avec des développeurs pour un échange de stratégies.

Enfin, un atout supplémentaire au déploiement du logiciel serait de mettre en place une intérface de saisse conviviale, pour permettre à des contributeurs l'ajout de nouvelles publications dans la base

Réstimé

Le Code International de Nomencluture Zaologique légifère sur les noms scientifiques ou nomina de rangs compris entre la sous-espèce et la super-famille, c'est-à-dire la nomenclature dite "inférieure". La nomenclature "supérieure" est actuellement "informelle", n'étant regie par aucune Règle, ce qui conduit à une situation d'instabilité nomenclaturale et de confusion. Une formalisation de la nomenclature supérieure récemment proposée repose sur le contenu et les limites des taxons pour lesquels les nomina ont été proposés, par comparaison avec les contenus et limites des taxons actuellement reconnus. De plus, afin de ne pas bouleverser deux siècles et demi de tradițion, les nomina en usage important, spécialement en dehors du domaine de la systématique, doivent être conservés. Ce travail présente une formalisation pour la représentation des données nomenclaturales et l'automatisation de l'application de Règles de nomenclature proposées sur ces données. Un prototype de logiciel a été developpé Son architecture repose sur (1) une base de données qui comporte les informations nomenclaturales; (2) un programme situé côté serveur, d'interrogation de la base de données et d'application des Règles nomenclaturales; (3) une interface web d'exploitation du programme. Le prototype de ce logiciel a été développé dans un premier temps pour les nomina du groupe des Amphibiens.

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Corresponding editor Annemarie Ohler.

Professeur Jean Guibé (1910-1999): biographie et bibliographie

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Professor Jean Guibé was head ("Directeur") of the Laboratory of "Reptiles et Poissons" (Reptiles and Fishes, actually Reptiles, Amphibians and Fishes) at the Museium national d'Histoire naturelle, Paris, from 1957 to 1975, where he took up his first duties in 1945. After having worked on Insects and Arachnids until the WMI time at Caen (Normandy), he fully devoted his researches to Reptiles and Amphibians, with an obvious preference to the latter group. He showed a special interest in the fauna of western Africa and Madagascar, described about sixty new taxa, and published more than one hundred and fifty references, including chapters of memory of Jean Guibé.

ÉLÉMENTS DE BIOGRAPHIE

Jean Marius Renic Gubé, issu d'une famille originaire de Normandie³ et établie à Caen, naquit à Paris (VF) le 18 février 1910, dernier de cinq enfants. Son père était un chirurgien réputé (une rue de Caen porte aujourd'hui le nom du Professeur Maunce Gubé), il a notamment redigé une Chirurgie de l'abdomen, dont 7 éditions se succédèrent de Guini. (1904) à notamment redigé une Chirurgie de l'abdomen, dont 7 éditions se succédèrent de Guini. (1904) à le liber de l'abdomen de Chirurgie de l'abdomen en 1931, pus il passa sa licence des Guini. (1904) à la Faculté des Sciences de Sciences Naturelles (Zoologie, Botanique, Géologie) en 1934 à la Faculté des Sciences de Caen et y devint assistant du Professeur Léon Mercier, spécialiste de Diptères. Réformé définitif en 1935 pour cause de maladie, il fut chargé à partir de cette année du cours de

1. Des Gubés ont mentounnés en Bretagne dès la fin du XVⁿ siècle: Michel Guibe, évêque de Dol (1478 1821) pus de Rennes (1482-150), Robert Gubés, ea 4 Virte, réèque de Treguei (1492-150), de (1478 1821) pus de Rennes (1502-1506), de Nantes (1507-1510) et de Vannes (1511-1513), Jacques Gube, capitame de Rennes (1502-1506), de Nantes (1507-1510) et de Vannes (1511-1513), Jacques Gube, capitame de Rennes en 1489, deuger d'Anne de Bretagne Rennes, vales que voir de l'active le nième³), capitame de Fougeres en 1498, qui fit construire en 1513 au château de cete ville à tour qui porte entore son nom, Jacques Gube, qui commanda un navare au départ de Morlans en 1501. En 1513 les Gube, seigneurs de Samil-Jean, s'installerent à l'ancien manor de la Medie, tous deux stutes a Samil-Jean-sur Cousson, non lon de Puigeres. L'Orne cet auquerd'hui le departement dans lequel le nom de Guibé, atteste depuis le XVIV socke en te musir proviséent.



fear friells

Fig. 1.—Le Professeur Jean Guibe, vers 1970, dans son bureau au Laboratoire de Zoologie (Reptiles et Poissons) du Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle.

Bour 135

Cryptogame à l'Ecole de Médecine et de Pharmacie de cette même ville, une note publiée en 1936 s'intitule La thérapeutique actuelle dans les empoisonnements phalloidiens.

A Caen, ses travaux furent principalement dévolus à l'Arachnologie (il publia un Aperçus ura la fiune arachnologique de la Normandie, recensant 291 espèces), a l'Entomologie, ainsi qu'à l'Éthologie parasitaire. Jean Guibé entretenant des relations suivies avec les chercheurs du Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle de Paris. Louis Fage au Laboratoire des Vers et Crustacés, Jacques Millot au Laboratoire d'Anatomie Comparée, René Jeannel, Lucien Chopard, Eugène Séguy et Lucien Berland au Laboratoire d'Entomologie. Son orientation nette vers le groupe des Arthropodes l'amena à soutenir en 1939 sa thèse de Sciences sur un Dipière Sphaerocentale (Apterma pedestris Meigen, 1830). Ce sujet avait déjà interesse Léon Mercier, et Jean Guibé lui-même y travaillait depuis 1936. Selon le Professeur Claude Dupuis (in litt., 4.1V.2003), cette thèse "mérite d'être citée comme une contribution importante a l'etude du ptérygopolymorphisme chez les lissesces et son éventuel déterminismes génétique."

Boursier de recherche en 1940, Jean Guibé fut déclaré "bon pour le servuce auxulaire" et mobilisé quelques mois (d'avril à septembre 1940, au dépôt d'artillerie N"3 à Caen) Inscrit en 1941 sur la liste d'aptitude, il fut nommé Chargé de Recherche au CNRS en 1943. En jun et juillet 1944 il servut à Caen comme volontaire dans les équipes chirurgicales de l'Hôpttal du Bon Sauveur, il assistant son père en lant qu'anesthésste L'année suivante, Jean Guibé fut nommé Chevalier de l'Ordre de la Santé Publique. C'est à cette époque qu'il subit une grave perte pour ses travaux, perte qui contribua peut-être à sa réorientation: "l'incendie des bâtiments de l'Université de Caen, dû aux faits de guerre de juin 1944, anéantit complètement mon matériel et mes notes dont je pus seul sauver mon cahier d'excursions et de déterminations" (Giusé, 1956: 5).

Sur recommandation du Professeur Pierre-Paul Grassé, Lucien Berland fit recruter en 1945 Jean Guibé comme assistant de la Chaire de Zoologie (Reptiles et Poissons) du Muséum (stagiaire par arrêté du 13 mars 1945; titulaire par arrêté du 31 décembre 1946). Ce fut pour Jean Guibé un changement complet d'orientation: Léon Bertin, Professeur, se réservant l'Ichtyologie, il se consiaera à l'Herpétologie. Tout en commençant la réorganisation des collections, il publia dès 1945, seul ou avec Fernand Angel, des notes sur la faune des Batraciens de Madagascar. Fernand Angel (1881-1950) etait "préparateur-assistant" au Laboratoire des Reptiles et Poissons depuis 1903! Comme l'a recomma Guibé lui-même, ce fut en fait, durant sa longue présence au Muséum, après le départ de Léon Vaullant en 1910, le seul scientifique du Laboratoire queilfie en Herpétologie.

Lean Gubé fut nommé sous-directeur du Laboratoure en 1946 (prissenté en première ligne le 14 novembre 1946 a l'unanimité des 15 votants). En 1949, une mission conduisit Jean Gubé au Laboratoire de Biologie Saharienne de Beni-Ouarl (Algèrie); il en rapporta une collection d'animaux, dont une Gazelle qui fut confiée à la Ménagerie du Jardin des Plantes II se rendit ensuite, en 1950-1951, à Madagascar, auprès de l'Institut de Recherche scientifique (IRSM, Tananarive) dirigé par Renaud Paulian Ses travaux continuérent à se consacrer a la faune herpétologique de la Grande IIe, spécialement aux Batraciens et aux Ophidiens, mas aussi à celle de l'Afrique occidentale, sur laquelle dean Gimbe piblis aeul ou en collaboration avec Maxime Lamotte. A partir de 1952, il donna une série de conférences publiques sur les serpents venimeux, ainsi que des courr d'Herpetologie à l'Institut d'Elevage et de Médecine Vétérinaire des Pays Tropicaux (IEMVT), a l'Ecole Vetérinaire de Massons-Alfort

Léon Bertin mourut tragiquement en 1956, et la Chaire de Zoologie (Repules et Poissons) fut déclarée vacante par arrêté du 7 Éverier 1957. Sur rapport de Jacques Millot, l'Assemblée du Muséum du 9 mai présenta Jean Guibe en première ligne, ce que confirma l'Académie des Sciences le 24 juin en le présentant également en première ligne. Il fut donc nommé Professeur, par décret ministèriel du 3 auît 1957, en remplacement de Léon Bertin II assista à l'Assemblée des Professeurs du 10 octobre et donna sa leçon maugurale le 29 avril 1958. En juillet de octre même année il fut nommé Officer des Palmes Académiques.

Jean Guibé prit une part importante à la rédaction du grand Traité de Zoologie de Pierre-Paul Grassé, écrivant compléments et mise à jour des chapitres rédigés par Bertin pour le tome 13 consacré aux Poissons (1958) et redigeant un grand nombre de chapitres des deux fascicules du tome 14 consacrés aux Reptiles, qui ne parurent qu'en 1970. Il fut nommé Chevalier de la Légion d'Honneur le 13 juillet 1962. Souffrant de migraines violentes et récurrentes, il annonca à l'Assemblée le 20 février 1975 son intention à faire valoir ses droits à la retraite. Il assista encore à l'Assemblée des Professeurs du 17 avril et le Directeur du Muséum Yves Le Grand exprima les regrets de cette Assemblée lors de la séance du 19 juin. L'Honorariat demandé le 9 octobre 1975 pour raison de santé fut accordé par décret du 17 février 1976. C'est après son départ que la Chaire des Reptiles et Poissons fut scindée en deux entités distinctes le Laboratoire d'Ichtvologie et le Laboratoire de Zoologie (Reptiles et Amphibiens). Après un intérim de deux ans assuré par son assistante Madame Rolande Roux-Estève (officiellement, c'est l'ichtvologiste Jacques Daget qui avait été nomme gérant de la chaire par l'Assemblée des Professeurs, le 9 octobre 1975), les successeurs de Jean Guibé à la direction du Laboratoire des Reptiles et Amphibiens furent Edouard-Raoul Brygoo. jusqu'en 1988, puis Alain Dubois jusqu'à la disparition de la chaire en 1995.

Le 17 mai 1935, Jean Guibé épousa Edith Leroy, Ils eurent quatre enfants. Annuck née en 1936, Daniel né en 1937, Clotilde née en 1938 et Yves né en 1944, qui leur donnérent huit petits-enfants. A Paris, Jean et Edith Guibé habitérent dans le 15° arrondissement, 35 boulevard Lefebvre puis 5 rue Mathurin-Régnier Bien après sa retraite, en 1988, Jean Guibé reagans au Normandie, demeurant 10 rue Paul Doumer à Caen. Son épouse Edith y décéda le 2 janvier 1996 et lui-même s'y éteignit le 4 mai 1999, des suites douloureuses d'une rupture d'anévirsme.

La bibliographie de Jean Guine représente près de 150 références. la part de l'Herpétologie en comprenant environ 130, recigiées seul ou en collaboration avec Fernand Angel (6 notes). Jean Anthony, Léon Bertin, Maxime Lamotte (15 notes), Jacques Millot, Braulio Orejas-Miranda, Rolande Roux-Estève (7 notes), Roger Roy, Hubert Saint Ginons, Hobart et Rosella Smith, et André Vilhers. Ces travaux s'intéressent aussis hein al systématique qu' à l'antonne, la biologie, Jethologie, la physiologie, la biogéographie et même al l'ethnologie; certains s'adres sent particulèrement au grand public. Parim ces publications, outre les chapitres du Traite de Zoologie, tome 14, publié en 1970 e qui représente près de 600 pages , citons Révision des Boiles de Madagarear (1949), Caudagoue des tripes de Aufraides de Stripes de Lézands (1954) des collections du Musèum, Mes Tortnes (1955), Les Serpents de Madagas au (1958), Les plus beaux Reptiles (1959), Les Reptiles (Que sais-yé, 1965.), Les Burracieris Que sais-yé, 1965. se conde édition revue par Michel Thireau, 1977), Les Amphibieneus (in Antonia Sais-yé, 1965, se conde édition revue par Michel Thireau, 1977), Les Amphibieneus (in Antonia Sais-yé, 1965, se conde édition revue par Michel Thireau, 1977), Les Amphibieneus (in Antonia Thirea, Zoologie, La Plerade, 1974), Burracieris de Madagas (at 1978); cette dernière monographie de 144 pages, flustrée de 82 planches, clós ta longue suite de publication de publication de production de la contraction de publication de

Bour 137

Jean Gubé lasse dans le milieu herpétologique le souvenir d'un chercheur méticuleux, quoite qui apparaît aussi bien dans ses dagnoses processe que dans ses dessins détaillés et fidéles à la réalité, qu'il réalisait seul, qualité qu'il montra également dans le grand travail de réorganisation et d'enregistrement entrepris avec un dévouement certain dans les collections quelque peu négligées du Laboratoire. Bien que plutôt tactiurne, peut-être à cause des migraines qui le faisaient souffrir, il savait à l'occasion faire preuve d'un sens subtil de l'humour, qu'il maniait avec beaucoup d'à-propos. Equitablement partagés entre Reptiles et Amphibiens au début de son affectation au Muséum, est travaux s'orientérent nettement vers cette seconde classe au fil des années, peut-être en raison de l'abondance du matériel africain et malgache à étudier, peut-être aussi parce que la relative indépendance de ses recherches sur les Amphibiens controbalançait la rédaction plus contraignante des chapitres du Traité de Zoologie consacré aux Reptiles, peut-être enfin parce que cela correspondait tout simplement à un penchant personnel.

REMERCIEMENTS

Cette note biographique a été redigee grâce aux recherches et communications personnelles de Madame Clottule Guibé et de Messeurs Edouard-Roud Brygoco et Daniel Guibé Madame Annemarie Ohler-Dubois, Messieurs Alain Dubois, Claude Dupuis et Michel Thureau nous ont fait d'utiles suggestions, nous les remercions tous been sincerement.

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APPENDICE 1

TAXONS DE REPTILES ET AMPHIBIENS DÉCRITS PAR JEAN GUIBÉ

La liste qui suit comporte tous les taxons décrits par Jean Guibé, seul ou en collaboration, par ordre chronologique de publication. La nomenclature est celle d'origine, nous n'avons pas proposé de taxons nominaux "définitufs", etant donné l'instabilite encore actuelle de la systématique, notamment de celle des Amphibiens de Madiaguscar La classification familiale des Amphibiens Anoures suit la proposition de Drusos (2005)

- 1. Pseudohemisus nustulosus Angel & Guibé, 1945 Microhylidae (Anura), Madagascar
- Genhyromantis albagularis Guibé 1947. Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar.
- Gephyromantis bertim Guibé, 1947. Ranidae (Anura) Madagascar.
 - 4. Genhyromantis tricinetus Giubé. 1947. Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar.
- Mantinus angeli Guibé, 1947. Microhylidae (Anura). Madagascar.
- 6. Boophis Jaurenti Guibé. 1947. Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar.
- 7. Platynelis milloti Guibé, 1950. Microhylidae (Anura) Madagascar.
- 8. Rhacophorus andrigitraensis Millot & Guibe, 1950 Ran.dae (Anura) Madagascar.
- 9, Rhacophorus (Philautus) madecassus Millot & Guibe, 1950. Ranidae (Anura) Madagascar
 - Paracophyla Millot & Guibé, 1951, Microhylidae (Anura) Madagascar
- 11 Paracophyla tuberculata Millot & Guibé, 1951 Microhyl,dae (Anura) Madagascar
- 12. Typhlops angeli Guibė, 1952. Typhlopidae (Squamata). Afrique occidentale
- 13. Pseudohemisus granulosus Guibé, 1952, Microhylidae (Anura) Madagascar
- 14. Hyperolius erythrodactylus Guibe, 1953. Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar
- Hyperolius nauliani Guibe, 1953. Ranidae (Anura) Madagascar. 16. Rana (Ptychadena) submass grenenis Grubé & Lamotte, 1953. Ranidae (Anura). Afrique occidentale
- 17 Liopholidophis pseudo-lateralis Guibé, 1954, Colubridae (Squamata), Madagascar
- 18 Rung (Ptychadena) journieri Guibe & Lamotte, 1955, Ranidae (Anura). Afrique occidentale,
- 19. Agama caucasica mucronata Guibé, 1957. Agamidae (Squamata), Iran.
- Pseudocerastes latirostris Guibé, 1957. Vineridae (Squamata), Iran.
- Ptychadena perreti Guibe & Lamotte, 1958 Ranidae (Anura) Afrique équatoriale.
- 22 Phynobatrachus maculiventris Guibė & Lamotte. 1958 Ranidae (Anura) Afrique occidentale.
- 23 Phrynobatrachus vilhersi Guibė, 1959 Ranidae (Anura) Afrique occidentale.
- 24 Ptychadena povntoni Guibé, 1960, Ranidae (Anura), Afrique méridionale.
- 25 Ptychadena smithi Guibe, 1960 Ranidae (Anura) Afrique méridionale.
- 26 Phrynobatrachus alticola Guibé & Lamotte, 1962 Ranidae (Anura) Afrique occidentale 27 Phr) nobatrachus guineensis Guibe & Lamotte, 1962 Ranidae (Anura). Afrique occidentale.
- 28 Rhinoleptus Orejas-Miranda, Roux-Estève & Guibé, 1970 Leptotyphlopidae (Squamata) Afrique occidentale
- 29 Anodonthyla rouxae Guibé, 1974. Microhylidae (Anura) Madagascar
- 30 Gephyromantis blanci Guibė, 1974, Ranidae (Anura) Madagascar,
- 31. Gephyromantis domerguei Guibé, 1974. Ranidae (Anura), Madagascar.
- 32. Gephyromantis elegans Guibé, 1974, Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar
- Genhyromantis klemmeri Giubé, 1974, Ranidae (Anura), Madagascar.
- 34, Madecassophryne Guibé, 1974 Microhylidae (Anura) Madagascar
- Madecassophryne truebae Guibé, 1974 Microbylidae (Anura), Madagascar.
- 36. Mantidactylus hourgati Giubé. 1974. Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar
- Mantidactylus grandisonae Guibé, 1974. Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar.
- 38. Mantidactylus pauliani Guibé, 1974. Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar
- 39. Mantidactylus pseudousper Guibe, 1974. Ranidae (Anura), Madagascar.
- 40 Mantidactylus witter Guibé, 1974, Ranidae (Anura), Madagascar, 41 Mantipus hipunctatus Guibé, 1974, Microhylidae (Anura), Madagascar
- 42 Mantinus quenthernetersi Guibé, 1974 Microhylidae (Anura), Madagascar
- Microhyla palmata Guibé, 1974. Microhylidae (Anura). Madagascar
- Plutyhvlu ulticola Guibė, 1974. Microhylidae (Anura). Madagascar
- 45. Plutypelis tsurutananuensis Giubé, 1974, Microbylidae (Anura) Madagascar
- 46, Rhucophorus brygoot Guibė, 1974, Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar
- 47. Rhucophorus elegans Guibé, 1974. Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar
- 48 Rhacophorus microtis Guibe, 1974. Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar
- 49. Rhacophorus williamsi Guibé, 1974. Ramdae (Anura). Madagascar
- 50 Stumpffia grands Guibe, 1974 Microhylidae (Anura) Madagascar
- 51. Stumpflia roseifemoralis Guibe, 1974, Microhylidae (Anura), Madagascar
- 52 Gephyromantis blommersae Guibé, 1975. Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar
- 53 Gephyromantis eiselti Guibé, 1975. Ramdae (Anura). Madagascar
- 54. Hyperolius arnoulti Guibé, 1975. Brevicipitidae (Anura). Madagascar
- 55 Mantipus minutus Guibe, 1975 Microhylidae (Anura). Madagascar

Bour 139

- 56. Mantipus serratopalpebrosus Guibe, 1975 Microhylidae (Anura). Madagascar
- 57. Rhacophorus granulosus Guibé, 1975 Ranidae (Anura). Madagascar.
- 58. Rhacophorus leucomaculatus Guibé. 1975. Ranidae (Anura), Madagascar,
- Stumpffia tridactyla Guibé, 1975. Microhylidae (Anura) Madagascar.
- 60. Mantella cowant nigricans Guibé, 1978 Ranidae (Anura) Madagascar (Voir Vences et al., 1999).

APPENDICE 2

TAYONS DÉDIÉS À JEAN GUIRÉ

- 1 Hyperolius lateralis guibei Laurent, 1951, Brevicipitidae (Anura), Afrique orientale,
- 2. Ptychadena guibei Laurent. 1954. Ranidae (Anura). Afrique méridionale
- 3 Chamaeleo gubei Hillenius, 1959 Chamaeleonidae (Squamata), Madagascar,
- Lygodactylus guibei Pasteur, 1964, Gekkonidae (Squamata), Madagascar
- 5. Bothus guber Stauch, 1966. Bothidae (Pleuronectiformes). Golfe de Gumée.
- 6. Ansonia guihei Inger, 1966. Bufonidae (Anura), Bornéo
- 7. Hyla guihei Cochran & Goin, 1970, Hylidae (Anura). Colombie.
- 8 Oxyrhopus guibei Hoge & Romano-Hoge, 1977 Colubridae (Squamata) Bresil.
- 9. Rhacophorus guibei McCarthy, 1978. Ranidae (Anura) Madagascar
- 10 Mantiductylus guibei Blommers-Schlösser, 1991, Ranidae (Anura), Madagascar,
- 11 Guibemantis Dubois, 1992 (sous-genre de Mantidat tylus Boulenger, 1895) Ranidae (Anura) Mada gascar.

APPENDICE 3

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Species introductions and reintroductions, faunistic and genetic pollution: some provocative thoughts¹

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Although less than other animal groups, amphibians are sometimes concerned by the problems related to the introduction of alien specimens into natural populations. They may be victims of such introductions (especially of amphibians, fishes and other aquatic predators), or cause problems to other species through introduction outside their range. The problems posed by introductions, reintroductions and population reinforcements are discussed in a more general way. Introductions of alien species outside their range (faunistic pollution), or of alien specimens into other populations of the same species or of another interfertile species (genetic pollution), beside creating ecological problems, hinder or impede subsequent study of the history and evolution of these populations. For evolutionary biologists, they amount to a destruction of their object of study. Furthermore, such operations carry an optimistic but misleading message to the public, according to which destructions of the environment caused by human activities would be reversible. It is urgent that the main concepts of genetics and taxonomy be given more weight in decisions regarding reintroductions of animals into threatened populations or habitats.

INTRODUCTION

Amphibian specialists worldwide have recently become aware of two "new" questions (14.20%), and "it is reasonable to predict that zoologists have not yet collected, studied, described and named half of the amphibian species that still live on our planet, perhaps even much less" (Dusois, 2004-22); (2) amphibians are currently facing major threats of various kinds, so that many species of this group are likely to become extinct in the next decades.

1 This paper is a combination of a communication entitled "Les-oncepts de pollution famility, et de opolution genetique", presented during the workshop "Les Amphibienes et les introductions d'espoesa pollution genetique", presented during the workshop "Les Amphibienes et les introductions d'espoesa November 903, and a communication entitled "Le connegt de pollution genetique", presented during the workshop "Espeese-malhissantes" introductions" organized by the Societé de Biogeographie et held in the Pairs Museum (France) on 10 November 2003.

(STUART et al., 2004, LANNOO, 2005) – many of them even before having been described (DUBORS, 1997; HANKEN, 1999). Batrachologists feel therefore very concerned about the conservation of amphibans aspecies, and, when this is impossible (especially when their habitats are being destroyed), they try at least to collect some specimens as a testimony to the existence of a species before its destruction as a result of human activity. Because of their complex life cycles, amphibains are particularly sensitive to environmental perturbation or destruction, being liable to be aggressed either during their aquatic life (as tadpoles or breeding adults in many species) or during their aerial life (as juveniles and adults). For this reason, in the recent decades attention has particularly be given to the factors of threat of these animals linked to the destruction or alteration of their habitats. Less interest has been afforded to another question, more studied in other groups of animals like mammals or birds, i.e., the problems posed by the displacement of animals by man on our globe and their introduction into new habitats. In this group also, however, this question merits to be considered.

Amphibian populations are concerned by this problem either as introduced species or as victims of introductions of alien species or specimens in ecosystems. Compared to mammals and birds, few amphibian species have been introduced in many regions outside their distributton range, but three of them have been so in several parts of the world: Xenonus luevis (Daudin, 1802), Bufo marinus (Linnaeus, 1758) and Rana catesbeigna Shaw, 1802. In some cases, these introductions were documented to have negative impacts on the native populations of other species of amphibians, or of other zoological groups. In other cases, for want of comparative studies, in particular based on the survey of the same habitats before the introduction, no such impact is known to have yet occurred, but a simple application of the precautionary principle requires to be very prudent before considering such an impact as negligible. Calling such a careful attitude "psychosis" (Duguer & Melki, 2003), without strong data demonstrating that the introduction has no harmful effect of any kind on an ecosystem, is certainly not doing a service to the education of the public to the risks of ecological deseguilibria linked to the introduction of alien species in ecosystems. Other introductions of amphibians, more limited in scope, have occurred in various regions, some of them with a documented negative impact on the native populations. The latter is particularly strong in small isolated habitats such as islands, as well exemplified by the introduction of the hylid species Oxteopilus septentrionalis (Dumeril & Bibron, 1841) in the Caribbeans (BREUII). 2002)

Amphibans can also be the victims of the introduction of alien species or specimens in habitats. Introduction of other aquatic predators like fishes or crayfishes can have strong impact on amphiban populations, in particular those in which a large part of the life cycle is spent in water, such as some mountain lake newt populations (Dusois, 2002). This impact can seemingly be reversed by reintroduction of amphibans in these habitats after eradication of the predators, but this is only apparent, as the reintroduced specimens will have to come from other populations and therefore will not inform us on the evolutionary characteristics of the specimens that had reached these habitats. By themselves?"

Although seldom mentioned by ecologists and conservation biologists, this problem of the loss of information caused by displacement of animals is even stronger in the case of specimens of the "same species", or of different species but that are liable to hybridize

successfully in the field. A particularly striking example in this respect is that of the complex of European green frogs of the genus Pelaphylax Fitzinger, 1843 (or the Pelaphylax subgenus of the genus Rang Linnaeus, 1758), which is of particular interest for evolutionary biologists as it includes both "normal species" and kleptons, i.e., "species" of hybrid origin with modified mejosis and hemiclonal transmission of the genome of one parental species to the progeny (Dubois, 1977, 1991; Dubois & Günther, 1982, Graf & Polls-Pelaz, 1989). Understanding how such a complex system appeared, evolved and progressively spread all over Europe is of great interest, and requires in particular analysis of the phylogeographic relationships between populations of the various taxa and regions of all Europe. Such an analysis will simply be impossible if too many displacements of green frogs are made, either for the purpose of eating frog legs (DUBOIS, 1983), or of using frogs in research and teaching (Durois, 1982), or of simple curiosity or "accident". However, evidence now exists that such displacements, followed by "successful" implantation of the newcomers and their breeding within the local populations, have already taken place in various parts of Europe, which will no doubt obscure or make impossible such phylogeographic analyses (Arano et al., 1995; PAGANO et al., 2003).

In may be useful for batrachologists to provide a more general discussion of some of the concepts relating to the problems of introductions and mixtures of specimens from alien origins in local animal populations, especially in the light of the concepts of "faunistic" and "genetic" pollution.

DEFINITIONS

The term pollution derives from the Latin verb polluere, which means "destroy the purity or anetity or". It is traditionally used in biologs, and especially in environmental sciences, to designate the introduction into an ecosystem of alien elements, i.e., that were not initially part of this ecosystem. The use of this term usually has two connotations. First, this introduction is usually "artificial" (i.e., due to man). Second, it is destructive or harmful to the environment or to the species that live there.

Environmental biology usually considers two kinds of pollutions chemical and physical Chemical pollution may be mineral or organic Physical pollutions may be of various kinds, e.g., thermic, electro-magnetic, acoustic or even visual. The present discussion is devoted to a kind of pollution which is less often considered as such, i.e., hoster pollution (Di Boots, 2002: 49), the mitroduction of alien organisms into ecosystems, following their translocation (displacement), which modifies the initial integrity of these ecosystems.

Three major categories of botte pollutions can be distinguished (1) the terms fauturing pollution (Dobots, 1983a: 103) and floristic pollution, or more generally taxomome pollution, designate introductions into ecosystems of twa that were previously absent from them, (2) the term genetic pollution (Di bots & Morkirk, 1979, 1980) refers to the modification of the genetic structure of a population resulting from the introduction of individuals being interferile with those of this population, (3) the term cultural pollution (Dubots & Morkirk, 1980) points to the introduction in a population, through learning or imitation, or behaviours or traditions that were not previously present.

Below, the term "natural" population designates a population that has not been modified by the introduction of alien specimens carried from elsewhere by man. This does not mean that such populations are "natural" in the sense that they would have evolved without any influence from man. Very few habitats, if any, remain on our planet that have not been modified little or much by human activity, but as long as the impact of this activity has been limited to predation, modification of the habitat or other aggressions, it has not altered the nonulation by introduction of alien genetic material. The "original" genetic characteristics of a nonulation are by themselves neither "better" nor "worse" than such "artificially modified" characteristics. Any given local population can be more or less "adapted" to its habitat. If all were "best adapted", extinctions would have been much rarer than they have been during the evolution of organisms on earth. The idea that is defended below, i.e., that, from the viewpoint of evolutionary biologists, introduction of alien specimens or alleles in populations should not be supported, does not mean that in most cases this introduction could render the receiver population more fragile (although this is true in some cases), but that it will obscure the message which "natural" populations, as defined above, can deliver regarding their past history and evolution

In what follows, the term "receiver population" designates any "natural" population in which individuals coming from another population are artificially introduced by man, whereas "provider population" designates the "natural" population where these introduced specimens have been collected.

FAUNISTIC POLLUTION

Faunistic (or floristic) pollution results from the introduction, followed by acclimatization (i.e., successful reproduction), of a species outside its previous distribution area. The criterion of acclimatization is an important one: simple introduction, not followed by reproduction in the new habitat, of a new species, even in large numbers, does not qualify as faunistic pollution, as it does not permanently modify the taxonomic structure of the ecosystem.

Faunistic pollution may have either "negative" or "positive" consequences on the environment and the species that live there.

In a first stage, a "successful" (i.e., followed by reproduction) introduction results in an increase of the species diversity of the ecosystem. In a second step, it induces more important modifications in this ecosystem. This may include reductions or extinctions of the populations of other species, i.e., a reduction of species diversity at the expense of "autochtonous" species, resulting from either predation, competition, parasitism or introduction of pathogens, or a combination of these factors. These structural modifications, in their turn, entail modifications in the dynamics of the ecosystem, in the relations between species.

Several criteria can be taken into account to consider that such a consequence is "posttive" or "negative". Some criteria rely on the needs or desires of human societies, or of some of their members, whereas others rely on the preservation of some natural equilibria or dynamics. Thus, reduction of specific diversity or modifications in the dynamics of the

DUBOIS 151

ecosystem may be considered "negative" consequences for the latter. But the situation is more complex, less straightforward, when the consequences for human societies, groups or individuals are considered.

Since the 19th century, many examples of catastrophic consequences of introductions of all species into ecosystems have been documented (Dorst, 1970, PASCAL et al., 2006). In many cases, an introduced species, having no local predators or competitors, shows a very rapid population growth and quickly invades the neighbouring regions and habitats, hence the term of "invasive species" to designate such situations. To tell the truth, such species are usually not particularly "invasive" by themselves, and often do not show such aggressive expansionist characteristics in their region of origin, but what makes them "invasive" is their arrival in a new ecosystem where they find a "free place" or are, at least temporarily, more efficient than the native species in competition or predation. The impact of such taxonomic pollutions may be very strong, especially in the first years or generations, before a new equilibrium can progressively develop. Particularly severe are the consequences of such introductions in small ecosystems, limited in size and/or in ecological diversity, such as islands, desert oases or isolated habitats, in such cases, extinction of the local species may occur raidly before such an equilibrium can propressively develop.

Despite these cautionary tales, still nowadays many "wild" introductions of plants or animals are made in various countries just for the "fun" or for "enrichment" of ecosystems believed to be "too poor in species" (VASSEROT, 1972). More dangerous are such translocations when they are "justified" by "economic" criteria. Among results for human societies that can be considered "positive" are the introduction of new food resources; no doubt, the introduction of the large frog Rang catesbeiana in some regions with depleted faunae (often as a result of previous human activities) may provide new sources of proteins for local human populations. In some cases, the introduction of alien species into an ecosystem may allow to help destroying other species that are harmful to the crop (parasites) or to live-stock (predators). Such a "biological pest control" is often considered only from the viewpoint of agriculturists and breeders, as a fully "positive" intervention of men on an ecosystem, but it may be so only from a narrow point of view, as introduced species frequently have the "bad idea" to do something else than that for which they have been imported; a striking example is that of the giant toad Bulo marinus, initially introduced in various regions in the hope that it would destroy insects harmful to plantations, but which turned to have very destructive impacts on the local ecosystems, especially in Australia.

As for the "negative" consequences for human societies of the modifications of ecosystems that may follow faunistic pollution, those which have direct, "visible" conomine impact are often highlighted e.g., the loss of food resources, as a result of predation, parasitism, competition or pathology, or the loss of "spectacular" species, particularly large-sized species of mammals and brids. However, while most popular media, or even scientists, will feel very concerned by threats on species like tigers, pandas or eagles, few will worry about the extinction of an obscure subternaneam mole, toad or collembola.

A strange fact, which has often struck me as a professional biologist, is the large, almost unaminous, silence of many of my colleagues, even among those who like myself are interested in biological evolution and who study it, about the immediate and inescapable consequence of any faunistic (or floristic) pollution as a factor of loss of information. Such

"successful" introductions modify the "natural" composition of ecosystems, and in particular the distribution of species. Whereas laymen and some popular media may imagine that the distribution of all species of our planet is "well known", specialists are well placed to know that this is completely wrong. Except for a few well-studied large-sized mammals, birds and a few other large vertebrates, not only the distribution, but, more prosaically, the mere existence of a large majority of the species of our planet is still unknown to biologists (HAMMOND et al., 1995). Active introduction of species by man outside their previous distribution range will introduce "artefacts" in the distribution of these species. This is all the more problematic whenever the place of the introduction is "not far" from the "natural" range of the species. especially if it is not separated from the latter by a natural barrier like a sea or mountain. As many introductions are carried out "secretly", in many cases the original place of origin and of release of introduced animals (or plants), and their sexes and numbers, are unknown, and doubts can exist about the indigenous nature of specimens later recorded in the same area. A good example of this situation was that of the specimens of the toad Pelobates fuscus (Laurenti, 1768) introduced by simple "scientific curiosity" in the early 20th century by Raymond Rollinat in the department of Indre in France, in an area where the species could potentially be thought of occurring "naturally" (DUBOIS & MORÈRE, 1979): the subsequent discovery of a population in this department (Dubois, 1984, 1998) inevitably rose the question of this population being native or not in this region, a question which has not been solved yet.

Several methodological precautions must be taken before considering the mere possibility to introduce a new species into an ecosystem, be it for "pleasure" or "curiosity" or for economic purposes. First, it is indispensable to dispose of a reliable description of the "zero condition", i.e., an analysis of the status of the ecosystem before the translocation. Then, one should not feel contented after having studied a few species, measured or estimated a few parameters only, of particular interest for "man", or at least for the agriculturists, breeders or other supposed beneficiaries of the introduction. Estimation of the impact of the introduction, once realized, should be done not only immediately after, but also in the mean and long term.

In a human society which consists of different groups having particular interests and various ideas, it is normal that different opinions exist regarding the need of such and such action. There is nothing surprising in voluntary introduction of alien species into ecosystems being supported by some groups having short term projects or interests, but what is more surprising is that the scientists concerned, in particular the biologists study ing the evolution of species, rarely defend, or even express, their own "corporatist" interest as scientists in such questions.

What can, or could, be the view point of scientists on such introductions? No need to say, biologists will require to have sold, reliable scientific data to evaluate the impact of translocations on natural ecosystems and populations. In most cases, the mere principle of the introduction of alien species in localities should be acceptable only for major reasons of public health or alimentation, but excluding curiosity and pleasure. But it would be their right, not to say their duty, to go a bit further and to say that, a priori, biologists, and particularly evolutionary biologists, cannot be in favour of introductions of alien species into ecosystems, for a simple reason of defence of their own activity. Such translocations create artificies in the distributions of species and, except in the rare cases where the history and particulars of the

DUBOIS 153

introduction are well documented, such artefacts may not be recognized as such later. This means that future studies on the distribution and history of the species in the area will be precluded, or, which may be worse, that their conclusions may be completely wrong. For this simple reason, such projects cannot be supported by students of life evolution on earth

GENETIC POLLUTION

Any acclimatization into a population of individuals interfertile with the native individuals results in a genetic pollution, i.e. a modification of the genetic structure of this population As hybridization is often possible in nature between different, but closely related species, genetic pollution may be either intraspecific or interspecific. It may result either in the introduction into the population of alleles that were absent there, or in a modification of the relative frequency of alleles, e.g., with a sudden increase in the frequency of an allele which previously was very rare in this population, or the reverse.

Genetic pollution may result from transportation (sometimes involuntary) and subsequent release into a population of alien specimens of the same species (or of a closely related, interfertile species) by someone thinking that, as they are supposed to be "the same species", they are "identical", and that "no harm" can result from mixing them. Such cases of genetic pollution are so to speak unintentional and little conscious or unconscious. But nowadays a fully conscious and voluntary case of genetic pollution results from actions of conservation biologists aiming at "reinforcing" threatened populations. Such cases have become quite common in the recent decades, and they are supported by a number of actors, so they deserve a particular discussion.

Population reinforcement is considered a useful measure of conversation biology in the cases of populations very reduced in size and threatened by extinction, a good example of which is given by the bears in the French Pyrenees. Even when the factors responsible for the reduction in size of the population are no more active (which is rarely the case), many biologists think that a very small population is too fragile to expect rapid size increase A factor is often invoked as a major one for the weakening of such small populations, and this is the risk of consanguinity. Many population geneticists are keen of mathematical models "demonstrating" that the risk of inbreeding is so strong in such small populations that it is vital to introduce "new blood" to rescue them. It is often on the basis of such impressive models and calculations that the decision is taken to introduce specimens of the same species (sometimes referred to the same subspecies) to "cenforce" this population, increase its genetic diversity and save it from sinking into inbreeding. No discussion is often devoted to the fact that any introduction into a population of ahen individuals that will breed with the native specimens will result in a modification of the genetic structure of the population that will obscure it is evolutionary characteristics.

Many of the promoters of such reinforcement programmes act as if, as soon as they "bear the same name", all individuals of the same taxon are identical and interchangeable. Such an attitude reminds the beginnings of natural history, when a "typological" or "essentidistic" concept of biological species was prevalent. It has been completely outdated since the beginning of the 20th century, when the notions of genetic variability and of genetic transmission of characters appeared, which resulted in the progressive appearance of a populational concept of species, developed in the "new systematics" of the 1940s (MAYR, 1982, 1997). It is now well-known that each species is characterized by a large genetic polymorphism, most genes co-existing within the genome of the species under different alleles. Different populations of the same species, especially if they are largely separated and if gene flow between them is limited, may have different alleles, and/or different allelic frequencies. Polymorphism was defined by FORD (1945) as "the occurrence together in the same habitat of two or more distinct forms of a species in such proportions that the rarest of them cannot be maintained by recurrent mutation". Concretely, the term "genetic polymorphism" is often reserved to the description of situations where several alleles have a proportion of at least 5 % in the population, whereas alleles with a lower frequency are considered "rare" (LAMOTTE, 1974); such "rare mutations" can result from recent events of mutation or exceptional immigration from populations having different genetic characteristics. It is now widely accepted that the genetic characteristics of populations of a given species result from an equilibrium between adaptive and neutral characters. Some alleles may be selected because they are advantageous to the population in given conditions of climate, habitat, interactions with other species of the same ecosystem, etc. Others are simply the result of random drift and have no known adaptive effect. The proportion of both kinds of polymorphism is usually not known, and is probably most variable from one species or population to another

Of course, the genetic pools of natural populations are not stable. They are permanently submitted to important variations, as a result of the phenomena of mutation, selection, and migration for populations that are not isolated. These variations allow them to adapt to changes in the environmental conditions, and species likely to be submitted to frequent such changes show more genetic polymorphism than those inhabiting very stable environments. But in all cases these changes are continuous, they occur from one generation to the other, each generation starting from the genetic pool of the preceding one. In order for biologists to be able to detect and analyse these phenomena, to understand the phenomena of polymorphism, speciation, colonization, migration, the genetic characteristics of populations, that result from the evolutionary process, should not be modified by man through what can be considered an "artificial imperation".

A "population reinforcement" may have several consequences on the population which reverse such artificial immigrants. Some are "positive", at least initially, in ecological, ethological and demographic terms. The increase in the population size not only reduces the risks of complete extinction by death of the last survivors. It usually increases the genetic diversity, but also, and perhaps mostly, the chances for adults of both sexes to meet and to have successful breeding. But It may also have "negative" ecological consequences, such as the introduction of pathogens, or the invasion of the genome of the population by alleles less adapted to the local conditions. In all cases, anyway, it results in a modification of the genetic characteristics of the population (genetic pollution).

Now, let us consider another aspect of this question, seldom mentioned in publications dealing with conservation biology, but similar to the one tackled above for taxonomic pollution. From the viewpoint of the biologists who study evolution, genetic pollution simply amounts to the destruction of one of the objects of their studies. Contrary to researchers of

all other "reductionist" disciplines of the science of biology, evolutionary biologists do not have the possibility to make and repeat experiments on their material. Of course, they can study drosonfules in cages, build up models that are supposed to account for some of the evolutionary facts observed, but these facts themselves are beyond their possibility of action. for the simple reason that they occurred over millions of years. Biological evolution is a unique experiment that has occurred only once and which cannot be repeated. (Furthermore, if it was to be repeated, the results would be completely different from those we observe now. as this historical process was in no way teleological and is the result of an unrepeatable mixture of chance and natural selection). The only way to understand this experiment is to study carefully its results, all its results, not only in terms of mornhology anatomy genetics etc. but also in terms of geographical distribution of the organisms and of the historical patterns of their phylogeny. In this respect, genetic pollution acts as a parasite it introduces in the patterns of nature some "artefacts" that will often be impossible to recognize as such later on As well analysed by GREIG (1979), this is not a matter of "purity" of the receiver population, that should be protected from outsiders because they would be "bad" - an idea which understandably reminds nauseous iodeologies of racism in human society it is "simply" a matter of deliberate destruction of a product of evolution that could help evolutionary biologists to understand some of the modalities of organismic evolution on our planet.

The claimed purpose of introduction of alien specimens into a threatened population is to "reinforce" the latter. However, the first immediate consequence of this action is to modify the original characteristics of the population, in such a way as these characteristics will remain forever impossible to know, or very bazardous to reconstruct. From the viewpoint of an evolutionary biologist, genetic pollution results in destrowing the population as such. Specimens referred by taxonomists to the same taxon (species, subspecies) may still occur in the habitat in the future, but these won't be the progeny of the "natural" population which once occupied this site.

What are, or what should be, the aims of conservation biology? Are they to help keeping biological diversity as high as possible for ecological purposes (according to the idea that an ecosystem with a high specific richness is more healthy and resistant than a poorer one?) Are they to protect the species for patrimonial reasons, for their intrinsic value or interest? To conserve the species as witnesses of biological evolution? For maintain as many "natural" populations as possible in order to be able to understand in detail evolution? If the reply to the latest question is yes, then voluntary genetic pollution through "population reinforcement" is contradictory with this aim.

REINTRODUCTIONS

A different question is that of reintroductions of species in a region where they used to be present in recent historical times (often until the 19th or 20th century), but where they became extinct as a result of human activity. In such cases, the reintroduction of specimens may be considered as a possible way to reinstate a situation similar to the previous ones, but a number of precautions must be taken before doing so (Johris & Tairos, 1971, Rapin, 1977). First of all, it is necessary to establish for which reasons the species first came to extinction in this

region. If the cause of this extinction still persists, there is no point in reintroducing the species, as it will probably follow the same fate as previously. Then, if the conditions have changed and are again compatible with survival of the species, the next question is to know why the species did not come back by itself. It may be because the next populations of the species are too far, or separated from the population concerned by barriers that the species cannot overcome. If so, reintroduction may be the only way to reinstate the species in the receiver locality but if not, it may just be a matter of time; waiting enough will allow the species to come back by itself in this area. If for some reason one would like to "go quick" and to reintroduce the species artificially to "save time", then another future development of the situation may be that finally specimens come from another population of the species; they will then meet the specimens reintroduced, or their descendants, and we will then be sent back to the case discussed above of genetic pollution between two populations. The reverse possibility also exists, that of specimens reintroduced into a receiver population which later move and come in contact with other populations. This is not impossible even over long distances, in particular in the case of birds and mammals. Therefore, in many cases there exists no real difference between reintroductions and population reinforcements, as both may result in genetic pollution of some populations

CONSERVATION BIOLOGY, TAXONOMY AND THE MEDIA

Even if few conservation biologists would spontaneously recognize it, no action in their domain (like in many other fields) would be possible without a taxonomy of living organisms. Decisions are often based on "red lists" and other documents that rely on taxonomic knowledge. Whenever a population is considered threatened, this is on the basis of its allocation to a taxon (species subspecies). However, this recourse to taxonomy is often "unconscious" and is often accompanied by a negative attitude towards the discipline of taxonomy (Duboix, 2003) Strangely and contradictorily, this negative attitude is accompanied by an unwarranted confidence in the quality and completeness of our taxonomic knowledge, supposed to have been "finished" long ago, and which is considered a solid basis for undertaking actions of population reinforcement.

There are several distinct and complementary reasons why the fact that they "bear the same name" does not mean that two or more populations are "identical". The first one, tackled above, is the existence in all aimnal species of a genetic polymorphism, and of differences in this respect between different populations of the same taxon. Second, in many zoological groups, different species may exist which cannot be readily distinguished without recourse to rather heavy techniques like bioacoustics, cytogenetics, electrophoresis, nucleic acid sequencing, morphometrics, etc. Such "cryptic species", "subling species" or better daulspeerve (BERNARD, 1980) cannot be readily recognized by superficial observation of the phenotype, and mixing them in a single population can result in considerable genetic pollution. If the receiver population happens to be the last one in existence of its species, then its "reinforcing" results in fact in its immediate and irreversible destruction. Another problem comes from the frequent use, at least in some taxonomic groups, of the rank "subspecies", which do not often correspond to a real evolutionary unit, For some neanes, subspecies which do not often correspond to a real evolutionary unit, For some neanes, subspecies.

correspond to closed black boxes with homogeneous content, variability existing only between such boxes, but not inside each of them: this is again a typological conception of taxonomy that is completely obsolete nowadays (Duoois, 1983b)

Such attitudes and actions take their roots in ignorance of a major problem faced by biology today, the taxonomic impediment (Anonymous, 1994). The latter is both quantitative and qualitative. It is quantitative, because only a small proportion of the animal species of our planet have yet been discovered, collected, studied, described and named. Less than two millions animal species have been described and named so far, whereas the total number may be between 10 and 100 millions, or even more (HAMMOND et al., 2005). The taxonomic impediment is also qualitative, as even for most named species, the amount of information available is very small, and often wrong; most revisionary taxonomic works carried out on zoological groups result in modifications, sometimes drastic, of the taxonomic arrangement of previous authors, in description of new species, synonymisation of others, etc. According to STUART et al. (2004), 30 % of the "known" amphibian species worldwide are "data deficient" regarding their conservation status, which means that we know almost nothing about them Although most biologists, including conservation biologists, are convinced that our taxonomic knowledge is solid and likely to be stable, no competent taxonomist would support this interpretation, and specialists of this discipline are the first ones to claim that their results are to be to taken with caution, just like provisional data or "progress reports". Thus, basing interventions like population reinforcements on the current taxonomy of a group, especially when the latter has not been recently revised, is at best naive and at worse irresponsible.

This question is a very enlightening one regarding the relationships which exist nowadays in our society between science, teaching and information, three domains which have different relationships to time. The media (journals, radio, television, and now internet) live under a permanent constraint of "immediateness", with very little interest in the past or the future. For many journalists and reporters, the idea that some questions are still insolved is simply insupportable, and they require immediate replies, and if possible immediate actions. This "impatience" of the media is incompatible with many problems, in particular regarding environment. A second imperative of communication through the media is that, to be likely to reach the public, the "message" must end with a "positive", "constructive", "optimistic" conclusion. Just like many movies have a "happy end" to please a majority of spectators, a message regarding environment would be unbearable if it did not end with a promise that "man", after having destroyed much of our planet, will prove able to repair its faults. The idea that many of the destructions that our societies have caused to the planet where we live are not repairable, that there is no "consolation" to expect, is not acceptable by many.

Thus, the message that many media pass to the public, and to decision makers of our source, is that, yes indeed, "we" have done a lot of mistakes, but that most of the destructions "we" have done are temporary and repairable. In this respect, both reintroductions and population reinforcements appear as ideal operations for "man" to correct its mistakes and repair nature after having mistreated it.

Let us take one example, discussed in detail by Dt Bots & Morkin. (1980), that of the Atlantic puffins, Fruter ula arctica (Linnaeus, 1758), of the Sept Iles in Bretagne (France) Following the wreck of the super-tanker Amoo Cadie: n 1978, their population had dropped

to about 430 couples, which had been judged "too small" by some ornithologists, who decided to "reinforce" it by introducing specimens collected in the Feroe islands (north of Scotland). This operation was all the more questionable that the Sept-Iles population was a very isolated one, the most meridional of the species, and had never been seriously compared with the more northern ones from various viewpoints (genetic, cytogenetic, behavioural etc.). Furthermore, this population was known to have already suffered a severe depletion because of hunting Although at the end of the 19th century it was estimated to 10000-15000 couples, it had dropped already to 300-400 couples in 1911 when hunting was prohibited on these islands at then progressively raised again to 7000 complex in 1950. Just "leaving the population alone" and trying to avoid further oil pollutions could have allowed a similar process to take place. but of course this would have taken a few decades, during which there would have been few birds to show to visitors, ornithologists and tourists. In contrast, some ornithologists organized a very "mediatic" operation to collect just hatched birds in the Feroes, carry them back to France and release them in the Sept-Iles No doubt, in our times where many laboratories have difficulties finding funds for their research, such a "dramatic" operation filmed by televisions is easier to finance than would have been research on the characteristics of the isolated Bretagne population of puffins. These characteristics might remain forever impossible to know, if only few Feroe birds survived and bred with the local ones, which could have been enough to modify the genetic particularities of the population. However, it is not clear if any of the introduced birds survived until adulthood (Reil LE, 1990), and now everybody agrees that this introduction of alien specimens was a bad idea, both for genetic and ecological reasons (Captott et al., 2004).

Similar operations have been organized with various large and spectacular species, e.g., in France, with lynx, bear or vultur. In the case of Pyrenean bear, Ursus arctos Linnaeus, 1758. many discussions raged among zoologists, conservation biologists, journalists and state officers to decide whether or not bears from other parts of Europe should be introduced to "reinforce" the vanishing local population. Most of the discussions turned around the problem of the number of individuals that should be transferred to avoid "genetic inbreeding", and elaborate mathematical models were produced in this respect. Few of the decisionmakers, however, seemed to be aware that the Slovenian bear provider populations seem to belong in a phylogeographic lineage different from that of the Pyrenean population (TABLE-LET & BOUVET, 1994; MILLER et al., 2006), although some studies seem to indicate that such a phylogeographic pattern does not exist, or at least that the situation is more complicated and needs more research (PAABO, 2000, HOFREITER et al., 2004) Here also, it is unlikely that these introductions will be successful, as many local people are unfavorable to the reintroduction of bears in this pastoral region, and tend to harass and even kill them. But if it did "succeed", i.e., if Slovenian bears did breed with Pyrenean bears, then the local population could definitely be considered extinct, even if "bears" could still be seen in these mountains. It could therefore not be useful anymore to try and understand the history of bears in western Europe.

The idea that "having bears" or "seeing puffins" in an area is equivalent to having perserved or restored a natural population seems strange to evolutionary biologists. Such artificial populations created by mixing individuals from various origins, even sometimes unknown origins, as was the case for some specimens in a program of "reintroduction" of vultur in southern France which used captive birds from various zoos. Ti Reasse, 1990) may plas a temporary role to preserve a species in an extreme situation when only a few secumens.

remain alive over the whole range of a species, but they are not justified when other healthy population still exist elsewhere (as is the case in most of the species mentioned above). Once modified by such genetic pollution (and sometimes also cultural pollution, when different local behaviours can be transferred by imitation), the receiver population will provide little or no information on its evolution and history

Let us take a comparison from another domain. Imagine a quarry that has long been known to be rich in paleontological remains, so that many collectors visited it and removed fossils from it. If the deposit comes to be exhausted, the owner may be unhappy, for example because he held a refreshment bar nearby that is now short of customers. He may then decide to take a truck, go to another quarry in another region, collect many fossils that "look the same" and discharge them in his quarry Visitors may come again and some of them may be happy because they see and collect fossils, but the latter, being disconnected from their original deposit and strates, will carry much less information than in their original site; they will still provide data on their morphology and characters, but this information won't be connected to geographical and stratigraphical, hence historical, data. Even worse, if a collector ignores their origin and collects these specimens thinking that they are in their original site, he may draw unwarranted and completely false conclusions. To be sure, visitors turning around the Sept-Iles in boats may be happy to "see puffins", but, if the introduction had been successful, the latter would not tell us much on the history of the puffin population of these islands. They would be quite similar in this respect to specimens in zoos, aquaria and terraria, are the latter the only possible future for all biodiversity on this planet?

When we first developed these ideas (Dunois & Monéan, 1980; Dt nois, 1983b), the reconstruction of the history of populations of a given species was still a promise, but nowadays, with the development of molecular methods based on nucleic acid sequencing, the new discipline of phylogeography has developed. The idea that was then largely theoretical has now become a common one, and more and more works are produced in this promising direction. It is therefore particularly shocking that, in the meanwhile, these ideas have not yet found their way in the minds and actions of conservation biologists.

When discussing with conservationists, it is striking to realize that one of the main arguments they put forward to justify actions of population reinforcement is the risk of consumption in nonulations too small in size. Also striking is the fact that one of the few universal taboos in all human societies is the prohibition of incest. Could it be that this taboo has something to do with the strong aversion, not to say the phobia, of consanguinty and inbreeding, by many conservationists (GREIG, 1979, DUBOIS, 1983b)? The idea that a genetic load, increased at each generation by inbreeding, can lead a population quickly to extinction because of the growing rate of "abnormal" individuals, seems to come in part from experiences in human populations or in domestic animal strains, such an increase is possible in humans because natural selection is highly reduced in our societies, disabled individuals being able to survive thanks to the help and support of the group, in cattle and other domestic animals, some selection exists, but highly directional as compared to wild conditions. In wild animal populations, deficient individuals are counter-selected at each generation, and usually leave no offspring. Although no doubt mathematical models based on the theories of genetic populations support this interpretation, these often rely on many assumptions that are difficult to test. The validity of such models would be strengthened by empirical, observational or experimental data, but such data are not very numerous, or not very convincing. In many cases, other explanations can be proposed to account for extinction of very small, isolated populations (Graeja, 1979). In fact, the existing empirical data rather seem to indicate that populations may well survive periods of very small size, with reduced genetic variability.

Several well-known examples support this interpretation. In captivity or semi-captivity, just a few individuals may be enough to start a wealthy stock, the most famous example being perhaps that of the European bison, a species which was rescued from just a few individuals kept mostly in the Białowiea forest in Poland (DORST, 1970). It may be argued that in this case their breeding was under the protection of humans, who may have eliminated some disabled animals, but no evidence for this is known. Another well-known situation, in which, on the contrary, the help of humans cannot be called upon, is that of the so-called invasive species mentioned above. In most known cases, invasive populations only started from a very small number of individuals, i.e., with a very reduced sample of the complete genetic variation of the species. Despite their high rate of inbreeding, these populations not only survived, but were able to have an explosive demography and to invade large territories in a short period of time. Colonization of islands by terrestrial animals also often starts from very low numbers of invaders, sometimes a single fertilized female. Small isolated groups of animals are not necessarily condemned to extinction because of inbreeding. In some cases their small number and reduced sampling of the total gene pool of the species may lead such small groups of animals to settle a new colony having unusual characters compared with their initial population. Such a founder effect by small number of individuals has long been known to be a common mode of speciation in islands or various isolated "ecological islands". But this is not the only possible pattern of evolution, as not all isolated small populations show this phenomenon of genetic drift.

GENETIC AND TAXONOMIC CONSERVATION

Conservation biology is and will be more and more a crucial domain in the beginning "century of extinctions" (Duonos, 2003). However, to play fully its rôle, this discipline must make more use than it does today of concepts from other domains of biology, It will not be enough to conserve or protect "kinds" of animals and plants. Conservation biology must incorporate some base concepts of taxonomy and genetics, such as the existence of genetic polymorphism within species, of sibling species, and more largely the mere recognition of the taxonomic impediment as a base problem for any action regarding bodiversity nowadays. The concepts of "genetic conservation" and "taxonomic conservation" must be given a more important place than that they have today in conservation biology.

The idea that "mankind" as a whole is homogeneous, and composed of individuals and grow which all have the same characteristics, interests and projects, although doubtless generous, is of course a complete dream. Different nations do exist, and within each country, different social classes and many other groups of people. Each of these units has its own interests and aims. These groups tend to be represented and defended by organizations at various levels, the states, political parties, trade-unious, lobbies, trists, or clande-time organizations.

nizations. Conservationsists are well organized at national and international level, their opinions can be heard in many cases, and they succeed in reaching some of their aims, including in organizing operations of "species reintroductions" or "population reinforcements". In contrast, it seems strange that, in this domain where evolutionary biologists can be expected to play an important rôle, at least as providers of basic information on the biodiversity, they do not act more as a "social group" by itself, with their own needs and projects. One such need and project would be to try and keep as many testimonies as possible of the evolution of organisms on earth, and among these testimonies, the existence and characters of animal populations in different parts of the planet is an important one. Accepting to participate in operations that, in the end, result in destroying the identity of "natural" populations, thus precluding their subsequent study, amounts for evolutionary biologists to destroying their own object of research. They may decide to do so, but at least this seems to be a matter worth of being discussed first (Duons, 1983.b)

There is another reason for being reluctant to supporting such operations. It is their basic philosophy, and especially the message that such actions deliver to the public. As discussed above, this is a positive, optimistic message what "man" has destroyed, he is able to repair. This message is completely misleading. First of all, it concentrates on a few large-sized "flag" species, without caring for the many other more obscure species that usually face the same threats and extinction factors. But above all, it is a deceiving message, as it tends to persuade the public that restoration of "natural" conditions is possible without changing basically the relationships between human societies and nature. Whatever our societies decide to do in the future, tropical forests, humid zones and other ecosystems that have been destroyed in the last century won't reappear, at least in the period of time of our generations, and of many other generations to come. The millions of species that our societies have aleady and will have caused to be extinct by the end of this century are and will be extinct forever, and most of them won't have ever been collected by scientists for future study by the forthcoming generations of taxonomists, as this question is considered of little interest by the decision-makers of our societies today (Durrois, 2003, 2007). All of this is a consequence of the "choices" made by our societies, although in this case the term "choice" is a bit misleading, as many actors of this catastrophe do not even realize what they are doing. But, then, what should be the rôle of those who have some knowledge (scientists) and of those who have some power to "communicate" (people in the media, the press, etc.) Is this to make believe that the moon is made of green cheese, and to convince people that we will have stopped the erosion of biodiversity on earth by 2010, although deforestation, CO, emissions and other pollutions, and human demographic growth will go on? Is it to tranquillize those who worry about species extinctions by telling them that animal species are "adaptable" and will follow the climatic and other environmental changes, and that anyway if they do not succeed in doing so this is not very important, as our planet has already gone through several mass extinction periods and that it has not impeded "life" to go on? This last statement is about as intelligent as would be a fireman who would refuse to come when warned that a fire has started in a house, as other houses have already burnt in the past and this has not impeded "life" to go on. Should scientists and media people remain silent and "optimistic" in order not to disturb the activity of stockholders of car and petrol industry, timber companies, fisheries or agronomical trusts? However unpleasant this may seem to some, it should be clear that nature conservation is possible only through confrontation with social forces that have other personal interests (Dunos, 1983a-b)² The "angelic" attitude which consists in saying that everybody is nice and kind, that companies that have been destroying the planet for decades will now save it, "restore" what they have ravaged, is either naive or deliberately misleading. It will not help our children to struggle to save what will remain of nature on our planet largely devastated by human activity.

The ideas of genetic and taxonomic conservation are not new. As pointed out by Duriots & Monitar (1980: 16), such ideas were already formulated very clearly more than one contury ago, e.g. by Bedriaca (1892: 244). Nevertheless they are still unknown, or misunderstood, by many biologists In some cases, like in the case of alligators in the USA (references in Duriots & Morkier, 1980), hot discussions may rage for some time between supporters and adversaries of displacement of animals from populations to others, the latter insisting that such transfocations provide "the possibility of obscuring natural patterns of adaptation and evolution" (Ross, 1977). But in many cases, like those mentioned above of puffin or vultur, no such discussion was carried out before the decision of translocation was taken.

It has now become urgent that these ideas become more present in the field of conservation biology, and the latter field should not be left only in the hand of "specialists" who have
no knowledge in other fields of biology. In most cases of "endangered" populations, there is
no point in adding specimens in the population if the causes of threat have not been
eradicated. Struggling for suppressing or reducing these causes is indeed a justified aim for
conservation biology. But, once this is done, enough time should be left to the population to
reconstitute is stock by itself, without incorporating "new blood". This may take years and
decades, and sponsors and journalists may not like it, but do we work to please sponsors and
journalists? Of course, even if they have been given a chance to reconstitute by themselves,
some of these very reduced populations may get extinct anyway. It will then be time to study
the opportunity of reintroducing the species, if it is unable to recolonize the site by itself. But
in some other cases, we will indeed have acted in a responsible manner to preserve a small part
of the patrimony that was bequeathed to mankind by biological evolution, but that our
societies have largely shoulded and destrowed.

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2. The resistance to these ideas does not always come from where one would expect. In the cightes, on several occasion we were forbidden to take part and speak in meetings and congresses on these questions organized or sponsored by the French Ministry of Environment. In one case we had even paid the inscription fees to the meeting (Lix outri et al., 1990) and for the hotel room, a payment for which we were never refunded, but we were not allowed to alternal and speak.

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Contents

| Alain Dubois Editorial. – Alytes as a forum | 1-5 |
|---|---------|
| Magali Delorme, Alain Dubois, Stéphane Grossean & Annemarie Ohler Une nouvelle ergotaxinomie des Megophryidae (Amphibia, Anura) | 6-21 |
| Meren Ao, Sabitry Bordollot, Annemarie Ohler & Stéphane Grossean Rana khare (Kiyasetuo & Khare, 1986): present distribution, redescription of holotype and morphology of adults and tadpoles | 22-39 |
| Arne Schiotz | |
| Notes on the genus Hyperolius (Anura, Hyperoliidae) in central République Démocratique du Congo | 40-60 |
| Arne Schiotz Reflections on the Hyperolius nasutus group (Anura, Hyperoliidae) | 61-71 |
| Gabriel Hoinsoudé Segniagbeto, Joseph Essô Bowessidjaou, Alain Dubois & Annemarie Ohler | |
| Les Amphibiens du Togo: état actuel des connaissances | 72-90 |
| M. Florencia Vera Candiori Morfologia latval de Chiasmocleis panamensis, con comentarios sobre la variabilidad morfológica interna en renacuajos de Microhylidae (Anura). | 91-108 |
| Camila BOTH, Axel KWFT & Mirco SOLÉ | 21-100 |
| The tadpole of Physalaemus lisei Braun & Braun, 1977 | |
| (Anura, Leptodactylidae) from southern Brazil | 109-116 |
| David Gérard, Régine Vignes-Lebbe & Alain Dubois Ziusudra, de la nomenclature à l'informatique: l'exemple des Amphibiens. | 117-132 |
| Roger Bour | |
| Professeur Jean Guibé (1910-1999): biographie et bibliographie | 133-146 |
| Alain Dubois | |
| Forum Species introductions and reintroductions, | |
| faunistic and genetic pollution: some provocative thoughts | 147-164 |

Alytes is printed on acid-free paper.

Alytes is indexed in Biosis, Cambridge Scientific Abstracts, Current Awareness in Biological Sciences, Pascal, Referativny Zhurnal and The Zoological Record.

Imprimerie F. Pailfart, Abbeville, France.

Dépôt légal; 4° trimestre 2006.